

# WORLD GEOGRAPHICAL ENCYCLOPEDIA





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VOLUME 5  
OCEANIA  
POLAR REGIONS  
GENERAL GEOGRAPHY

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# INTRODUCTION

## THE "NEWEST WORLD"

In dividing up the Earth into continents or parts of the world it has been the established custom to list Europe first and Oceania last in accordance with a ranking of frankly Eurocentric perception. This is certainly not devoid of historical logic since Europe was the point of departure for the discovery and conscious unification of our planet. Hence, the chronological succession of Old World, New World, and Newest World, to which have been added the polar regions (absolutely the last "unknown lands") and even more recently the ocean depths—almost a "submerged continent" in themselves—and outer space, now crisscrossed by artificial satellites and, in fact, annexed to the "anthroposphere."

The last volume in this Encyclopedia is therefore intended to host the last "continent," Oceania, as well as the polar regions, which remain the most peripheral areas of our planet and the least inhabited; in fact, these are the only truly deserted areas left, veritable "nonecumenical" zones practically removed from the pervasive human colonization of all space on Earth.

In reality, Oceania is more than a continent. It is the sum of the smallest continent proper, Australia, plus an aggregation of islands scattered (mostly in tiny clusters) throughout the immensity of the largest ocean on Earth—the Pacific. Ranging over an area of 73 million  $\text{mi}^2$  [190 million  $\text{km}^2$ ], Oceania covers practically two fifths of the entire planet, yet as much as 70 million  $\text{mi}^2$  [180 million  $\text{km}^2$ ] encompasses the waters of the Pacific and less than 3.8 million  $\text{mi}^2$  [10 million  $\text{km}^2$ ] is land (with Australia occupying some 2.9 million  $\text{mi}^2$  [7.7 million  $\text{km}^2$ ] alone). The great void of this part of the world is also reflected by its very small population: less than 30 million people, most of whom came from Europe (a smaller number from Asia) and supplanted (almost to the point of causing them to disappear) the native Aborigines, Melanesians, Micronesians, and Polynesians. In certain respects, the Oceania region—Australia and New Zealand, in particular—are still areas of "white" conquest, as was the American West a century ago, even if settlements and economic structures have reached mature and, in some cases,

advanced forms. The similarities also extend to the cultural mix of immigrants and the dominant Anglo-Saxon element which controls their merger. In fact, they are modeled more on the American than the British prototype, as are also the lifestyle and proud self-awareness of the more advanced countries. The exoticism of the Pacific islands is an attraction for tourists, with Hawaii being the international showcase.

The isolation of this newest continent is constantly being reduced by modern means of communication and transportation as well as by the growing economic importance of the countries around the Pacific rim (especially the U.S. and Japan). With the technologically most advanced regions of the world fiercely competing for the conquest of new markets, the Pacific area is exercising a new gravitational pull on the political and economic design of today's world.

## THE POLAR REGIONS

The process of demarginalization of large peripheral areas also extends today to the polar regions which are without doubt the most inhospitable on Earth. Europe, Asia, and North America all front on the Arctic Ocean, which explains the growing importance of the polar air routes that have for some years now linked the Far East to Canada and the United States. The division of the world into two political blocs also heightened the strategic military importance of the Arctic Ocean, under whose ice crust nuclear submarines with a wide cruising range have been navigating.

The isolated Antarctic continental landmass, on the other hand, has held a different interest for a variety of countries which have had their eyes on it since the beginning of the 20th century, notably the closest South American countries (Chile and Argentina) as well as Great Britain, New Zealand, the former Soviet Union, and the U.S. The territorial designs aroused by the potential exploitation of as yet unassessed mineral and energy resources have yielded to more rational scientific goals regulated by international treaties, resulting in the establishment

of research stations and laboratories to study the great variety of physical, geodynamic, geomagnetic, and atmospheric phenomena involved in the increasingly urgent need to understand and control the ecological balance on a planetary scale (typical are the studies of the ozone layer and the so-called "greenhouse effect"). Other nations—like Japan, Italy, and France—have joined those which have already advanced their Antarctic claims, in what has become a peaceful competition. For the first time in human history, the interests of the planet as a whole have been put before those of individual countries, even if the disputes involving Chile, Argentina, and Great Britain (the latter in the Falkland Islands) can certainly not be regarded as resolved. At any rate, the resources of the Antarctic are still intact or, as in the case of whaling, have in recent years been governed by international norms.

## THE RESOURCES OF THE PLANET

The South Pacific and the polar regions in the Arctic and Antarctic contain what are probably the most precious resources for future generations—renewable resources such as algae and water, which in the near future will become more important than traditional resources (in which these areas of the world also abound). But a reference work such as this, in addition to describing the individual continents and countries of the world, must also include the general characteristics and resources of our planet.

The knowledge we have acquired since the European Age of Discovery is now so vast that it must be constantly updated and organically systematized to take into account global data referring not only to physical features (land, oceans, rivers, climates) but also above all to anthropic and economic factors. In the past century these data have accumulated at an impressive rate never before reached in human history.

Although the physical features have evolved slowly, in accordance with a pace sometimes in keeping with geological rhythms and sometimes more variably conforming to climatic changes, they are increasingly influenced by human factors, to which effects are attributed that are capable of major repercussions involving the Earth's entire ecosystem. One need think only of the soil, water, and air pollution that has altered—and is increasingly altering—the balance in the biosphere. Think of the destruction of the tropical forests and the resulting depletion of the animal species that inhabit them, or of the desertification of tropical regions due to overcultivation, or of the risks of an abnormal "greenhouse effect" due to excessive gas emissions into the air, or of the gradual exhaustion of non-renewable resources such as oil, or of the devastating effects of radiation emanating from nuclear reactors, and so on.

These are phenomena triggered by technological and economic progress which benefits only a minority of the Earth's population, but whose negative effects burden all of humanity. They are further aggravated by demographic imbalances which pit the almost exponential increase in Third World populations against the stability of the rich nations.

The economic production statistics, broken down according to major categories (food, energy, industry, mining, etc.), provide

even greater evidence of the disparities between the countries which produce raw materials and energy resources and those which transform them into finished products, deriving from this considerable added value and competing for their distribution in the world's markets. The most significant and dramatic confirmation of such disparity is found in the social data relating to income, education, health, demographic rate of growth, consumption of capital goods, and the like. These data alone are eloquent testimony to the demarcation between the geography of plenty and the geography of hunger.

A comparative reading of these statistical data will integrate the information of the various phenomena on a planetary scale, facilitate juxtapositions, throw light on interrelationships, and generally contribute to that synthesizing vision which—by placing facts and problems in their spatial and temporal context—constitutes the very essence of geography, a discipline which, in the intricate mosaic of our modern world, can at the very least provide the critical knowledge required if we are to understand and approach our living space correctly.

Umberto Bonapace

# GENERAL CONTENTS



1 Oceania  
38 Possessions  
41 Images



85 Polar Regions  
99 Images



125 General Geography  
171 Images

241 World Statistics

299 Lexicon

Great Routes and  
Voyages of Discovery

325 Index

306 Magellan's Crossing  
of the Pacific  
308 James Cook's Voyages  
to Australia  
310 Stuart's Crossing of  
the Australian Continent  
312 The Arctic Route  
(Nansen and Nobile)  
314 The Conquest  
of the South Pole

*Note* All conversions of metric system (SI) units have been rounded off and detailed data may not add up to the totals given. Unless otherwise specified, tons (t) refer to U.S. short tons. In the designation of natural features and place names the local spelling has been retained (or transliterated in Romanized form), except in cases where an English-language conventional spelling is commonly used.



# OCEANIA

Unlike the other parts into which the Earth is usually divided, Oceania does not consist of a continuous expanse of dry land, but is fragmented into island groups dispersed across the Pacific Ocean, which occupies almost an entire hemisphere of our planet. However, Oceania is usually considered also to include Australia, which is the smallest of the traditional continents (and the last to be discovered by European explorers), New Guinea, the world's second-largest island, and New Zealand.

As Ilaria Caracci has written:

*The exploration of the Pacific Ocean, and the demonstration that Terra Australis did not exist, were the great conquests of the 18th century. Once the New World had been Europeanized, the islands of the great ocean became the last frontier of the white man's knowledge and dreams. In 1766 Louis Antoine de Bougainville undertook a voyage of circumnavigation that lasted two years, but on his return France and all of learned Europe were fascinated only by his description of Tahiti, and very soon the island became a myth—that of a primordial paradise of natural beauty, inhabited by a happy and sinless humanity.*

The area of all the lands of Oceania, including Australia and New Guinea (whose western half, Irian Jaya, belongs to Indonesia politically and is therefore included in the Asia volume), is 3,575,100 mi<sup>2</sup> [9,262,000 km<sup>2</sup>], or 6.3% of the world's land area. Australia alone accounts for 2,965,000 mi<sup>2</sup> [7,682,000 km<sup>2</sup>], and New Guinea for 326,000 mi<sup>2</sup> [845,000 km<sup>2</sup>]. The total population is 30 million, or 0.5% of the world's people, with an average density of 8.3 per mi<sup>2</sup> [3.2 per km<sup>2</sup>].

Leaving aside Australia, which is obviously considered a self-contained unit, the islands of Oceania, located for the most part in the southwestern sector of the Pacific, are traditionally divided into three groups: Melanesia, consisting of the large mountainous islands extending from New Guinea east to Fiji; Micronesia, with its groups of small islands (predominantly atolls) that stretch from Palau and the Marianas toward Kiribati to the southeast; and lastly Polynesia, the islands of which lie within a great triangle

with vertices at Hawaii, New Zealand, and Easter Island.

## NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

The small continent of Australia is the linchpin of this part of the world. The island alignments that characterize Oceania originated from movements of the extremely ancient Australian Plate. They form three great arcs extending to the east of Australia. The first consists of the larger islands—New Guinea, the Solomons, New Caledonia, and New Zealand—which formed during the Cenozoic orogeny. The second comprises the islands of Micronesia; and the third and outermost is the Polynesian arc, from Hawaii to the Tuamotu group. These alignments consist of volcanoes, many of them active, which demonstrate the geological youth of these islands. They originated as lava flowing from fractures that now mark the great Pacific deeps and resulted, according to the theory of plate tectonics, from movements of the Earth's crust. A characteristic feature of the intertropical volcanic islands and of the east coast of Australia is the presence of great coral reefs. Aligned to the east of the submarine ridges on which the larger islands stand (from New Guinea to New Zealand) are oceanic trenches—Solomon, Kermadec, and Tonga—that are part of what geologists call the "Pacific andesite line." This line divides the undersea areas affected by continental movements from those that are more intimately linked to the internal structure of the Earth's crust and constitute most of the Pacific Ocean floor.

**Geological structure and relief.** A distinction must be made between the geomorphological features of Australia—which is of continental size and constitutes a large crustal plate detached from ancient Pangaea, with great plateaus, peneplains, interior basins, and marginal mountain ranges raised by ancient folding (upper Paleozoic)—and those of the other large islands, such as the New Zealand group and New Guinea, whose mountains were rejuvenated by the most recent orogenies (in the Cenozoic) and are therefore higher and more rugged. Features similar to these are present in many Melanesian islands (the Bismarcks, the

Solomons, New Caledonia), while the little islands of Micronesia and Polynesia represent the tops of the oceanic volcanic ridges, sometimes mountainous in shape but more often made up of coral concretions clinging to the summits of volcanic peaks that barely rise above the water.

In Australia the eastern highlands, dominated by the long mountain range facing the Pacific (the Great Dividing Range), rise to little more than 6500 ft [2000 m] (7311 ft [2229 m] on Mt. Kosciuszko). Elevations are much higher on the Melanesian islands, including the peaks of the great east-west range that forms the backbone of New Guinea, with many exceeding 13,000 ft [4000 m] (the highest elevation, Mt. Djaja, at 16,498 ft [5030 m], is located in the western, Indonesian part of the island), and those of the smaller islands. The major Polynesian peaks are those of New Zealand, especially those of the South Island (Mt. Cook, 12,346 ft [3764 m]), while on the North Island are several massive but not very tall volcanic formations, such as Mt. Egmont (8259 ft [2518 m]), which is still active. The greatest volcanoes of the Pacific, however, are those of Hawaii, the most famous of which, Mauna Kea and Mauna Loa, are about 13,800 ft [4200 m] high. Also worth mentioning is the Haleakala volcano; its crater covers an area of 19 mi<sup>2</sup> [50 km<sup>2</sup>], with a circumference of 20 mi [32 km] and a depth of more than 2700 ft [830 m], and is considered the largest in the world. According to a folk legend passed on by Robert W. Bone:

*Maui, the legendary hero of ancient Polynesia, is not yet dead. He can still be found on the Hawaiian island that bears his name. In fact, you need only look for him in the place which attests to one of his most epic exploits: Haleakala, the volcano whose summit rises more than 10,000 ft [3000 m] and whose lush slopes are always enveloped in clouds. "Ha-le-a-ka-la"—almost a ritual chant in the Hawaiian intonation—means "House of the Sun," a name that could not be more appropriate for this volcano, from which seems to issue forth, every day at dawn, the most flaming and luminous of stars to launch its daily course through the sky. It is in fact this course, which the demi-god Maui regarded as rather too swift, that triggered his anger: the Sun was moving too fast, he believed, for the Earth to derive its benefits from it. Furthermore, the daylight hours were too short to dry out the tapa (a special type of carefully painted and dressed bark cloth) and prepare the evening meal. That is why, according to legend, Maui armed himself with a long rope and climbed up Haleakala before dawn, resolved to slow the unrestrained course of the Sun. Upon reaching the crater, he stopped and waited. When the solar monster arose, unawares, Maui immobilized it with his rope and extorted from it the promise that it would henceforth cross the sky of Hawaii much more slowly.*

*Today, many "pilgrims" still follow in Maui's footsteps and recall his expedition against the Sun.*

Relief on the minuscule islands of Micronesia is insignificant; as noted above, their volcanic nature is often concealed by the coral formations at sea level which often form a typical atoll shape, with a ring of islets surrounding a central lagoon. The Pacific also contains the deepest oceanic trenches on Earth, aligned with the eastern edges of the main island arcs: they include Mariana (36,192 ft [11,034 m]), Tonga (35,693 ft [10,882 m]), and Kermadec (32,954 ft [10,047 m]).

**Climate.** A true continental climate is present only in Australia, which contains the largest arid regions and deserts in the Southern Hemisphere. The remainder of Oceania, divided into two almost equal parts by the equator, is traversed by the inter-tropical convergence zone into which the trade winds blow—diverted by the Earth's rotation to the southeast in the Northern Hemisphere and to the northeast in the Southern Hemisphere—with a regularity resulting from the enormous, unobstructed expanse of the Pacific. The tropical latitudes are dominated by anticyclones, which move as they rotate either in the same direction as the trade winds or toward the subpolar latitudes with their dominant low pressure; in the Southern Hemisphere in particular, the prevailing winds in these latitudes are westerly, and are particularly violent along the Antarctic front. The isotherms are also aligned very closely with lines of latitude, with substantial deviations only near the South American coast and with lesser discrepancies in interior Australia.

Temperatures in the intertropical zone are mitigated by the great mass of the ocean and the constant winds; the annual mean is about 81°C [27°C], with minimal seasonal variation. Rain is abundant and evenly distributed throughout the year along the equator, but tends to diminish and acquire seasonal variations beyond the tropics.

Only interior Australia experiences climatic conditions that are frankly continental, with abrupt temperature changes and accentuated aridity. A kind of temperate climate prevails along the southern coast of Australia and more markedly in Tasmania and New Zealand, the only land areas of Oceania that lie beyond the 40th parallel. The entire atmospheric circulation system experiences seasonal modifications as the sun's zenithal position changes.

**Hydrography.** Sparse rainfall creates desert or semi-desert conditions in much of Australia. Large areas therefore have no outflow and possess only subterranean water resources (Great Artesian Basin) which are used to meet the needs of Australia's large livestock holdings. Only in the southeast, where the combination of trade winds and mountains produces greater amounts of precipitation, is there a hydrographic system, centered around several major rivers which flow down the western slope of the Great Dividing Range; the longest of these is the Darling, 1685 mi [2720 km] long, which drains an area of 351,000 mi<sup>2</sup> [910,000 km<sup>2</sup>].

The New Zealand archipelago, on the other hand, is well-watered, especially the South Island, which is exposed to westerly winds; these release moisture on the peaks of the New Zealand Alps and generate short but vigorous rivers that are also fed by glaciers and perennial snows. Numerous small lakes are also present here, often of glacial origin, while hot springs produced by secondary volcanic phenomena are common on North Island.

Fairly well-developed hydrographic systems are also present on Hawaii and the larger Melanesian islands, while on the other islands of Oceania surface watercourses are greatly limited by the small land areas available.

**Flora and fauna.** Both the vegetation and the fauna are highly unusual due to the great size and fragmentation of Oceania, the long geological isolation of some parts of it, and the difficulty of communicating among the various islands.



Leaving aside the larger territories, it can be said that the flora of Oceania exhibits species typical of Asia or the Indonesian and Malay islands (tree ferns, lianas, bamboo, and orchids), extending for the most part through Micronesia and Melanesia to Hawaii and northern Australia, alongside typically Antarctic and Australian species (casuarinas, acacias, eucalyptus) in Australia and southern New Zealand; forms similar to the vegetation of Africa and South America are not uncommon. There are many endemic species, especially on the more remote islands that have been isolated for long periods of geological time. Conifers (especially *Araucaria*), mangroves, breadfruit trees, various palms, coconuts, bamboo, ferns, and a number of different spice plants are among the most common species in Oceania, although their distribution varies according to the geographic location and elevation of the various islands. The islands with the sparsest vegetation are the Marshall and Gilbert archipelagoes.

The long isolation of Australia from the other continents has led to the survival of extremely ancient animal species that are extinct elsewhere, while numerous species common to the other landmasses are absent. For example, there are no large mammals (except, of course, those imported by European colonists), while certain smaller mammals such as the echidna and duck-billed platypus are unique to the continent, as are its numerous marsupials, including the kangaroo (symbol of Australia) and koala. The fauna exhibit similar characteristics in New Guinea, which is also home to several species of wild dogs, undoubtedly imported from nearby Asia. New Zealand boasts its own peculiar animal species, particularly with regard to birds: these authentic "living fossils" include several flightless species such as the kiwi and the takani, while the gigantic moa is now extinct. Another large flightless bird is the Australian emu. Birdlife is in fact extraordinarily rich throughout Oceania, comprising many unique species and exhibiting enormous variety, especially in New Guinea and the other large Melanesian islands. Lastly, the open oceans and particularly the inland seas sheltered by the coral reefs are home to the most spectacular variety of fishes on Earth. The coral colonies themselves, which in this part of the world have created immense formations of exposed rock, are among the most significant manifestations of marine life. Unfortunately, they are threatened by pollution caused by humans.

## POPULATION

On a global scale, Oceania may appear unusual due to its remoteness from the great centers of world political and economic power, the enormous size of its oceanic expanses, and its tiny population. The value of local products appears negligible compared with high transportation costs, and the local level of economic development is low.

Nevertheless, since Europeans first encountered its indigenous communities, Oceania has gradually become integrated into the world geopolitical system. Initial contacts by Spanish and Dutch explorers in the 15th and 16th centuries were followed by the great scientific voyages of the Englishman James Cook and others over the next two hundred years. At the time, Australia was inhabited exclusively by Aborigines. The physical traits of the Melanesians (so called because of their dark skin color), Micronesians, and especially the Polynesians appeared to represent a complex mixture; the latter (including the Maori of New Zea-

land) exhibited more homogeneous characteristics, while the Micronesians appeared related to the Polynesians in the east, and to the Melanesians in the west.

As the Pacific islands were gradually explored by Europeans, they were slowly exploited by American and British merchants and whalers, and Britain assumed initial political control over Australia and New Zealand. The 19th century saw an expansion of Christian missionary proselytization originating from Great Britain, the United States, and France, so that today the population of this part of the world, with the exception of New Guinea, is predominantly Christian.

At the end of the 19th century, when the economy of the islands became important and rivalries among the colonizing nations grew sharper, Oceania was ultimately partitioned among Great Britain, the United States, France, and Germany. World War I gave Australia and New Zealand control over German New Guinea and Samoa, respectively, while Japan temporarily occupied the Marianas, the Carolines, and the Marshalls, which were later placed under League of Nations trust administration. During World War II Japan occupied a number of island groups which were liberated by the Americans in 1945. Since then Oceania has gravitated largely into the political and economic orbit of western Europe and the United States, although between the two wars, links with western Europe became less important as many Pacific islands were decolonized. In 1959 Hawaii became the 50th American state, and in 1962 the western part of New Guinea, now called Irian Jaya, was annexed by Indonesia.

Papua New Guinea, the second-largest area in Oceania and with the third-largest population, became independent in 1975. Between 1962 and 1980, Western Samoa, Nauru, Fiji, Tonga, and the Solomons, along with Tuvalu, Kiribati, and Vanuatu, all gained independence. The United States granted special forms of autonomy to the northern Marianas, Palau, the Marshall Islands, and the Federated States of Micronesia. Guam and American Samoa are autonomous (unincorporated) territories, and only New Caledonia and French Polynesia remain part of France as metropolitan overseas territories.

The structure of Oceania's populations reflects their complex origins. Until World War II Australians and New Zealanders were predominantly of British origin. After the war Australia encouraged substantial immigration, and this caused a sharp increase in population and produced a multicultural society, with contributions primarily from Italians, Greeks, New Zealanders, and more recently Asians.

After the massacres and diseases that threatened to exterminate them, the Aborigines, confined for the most part to reservations, are now a small minority of the Australian population. New Zealand, on the other hand, is still predominantly British, although the indigenous Maoris, whose numbers are growing, constitute an eighth of the population.

On the other hand, emigration from many small islands of the Pacific has been and is still substantial, especially from Polynesia but also from Micronesia. Twenty percent of Western Samoa's people have emigrated to New Zealand, while half the population of Wallis and Futuna has moved to New Caledonia. There are twice as many Samoans living in the United States as remain in American Samoa. The native peoples of both New Caledonia and Guam are now minorities.

## Area and population

Country (capital)	Area (mi <sup>2</sup> )	Population	Density	Year
Australia (Canberra)	2,965,348	17,074,197	5	1990
Melanesia				
Fiji (Suva)	7,964	36,000	105	1990
Papua New Guinea (Port Moresby)	178,656	3,592,000	20	1989
Solomon Islands (Honiara)	10,637	18,707	30	1990
Vanuatu (Port Vila)	4,703	142,944	30	1989
Micronesia				
Federated States of Micronesia (Kolonia)	270	110,000	407	1991
Kiribati (Tarawa)	328	72,298	220	1990
Marshall Islands (Majuro)	70	49,000	699	1991
Nauru (Yaren)	8	9,350	1,142	1989
Western Samoa (Apia)	1,093	164,000	150	1990
Polynesia				
New Zealand (Wellington)	104,426	3,389,400	31	1990
Tonga (Nukunono)	289	96,300	332	1990
Tuvalu (Fongafale)	9	9,100	984	1990
Potomacans				
Australia	82	2,000	23	1990
Chile	63	2,000	31	1990
France	9,000	380,000	41	1990
Great Britain	14	-	-	-
New Zealand	196	23,000	117	1990
United States	7,138	1,477,000	199	1990
<b>OCEANIA</b>	<b>3,451,393</b>	<b>27,539,000</b>	<b>8.3</b>	<b>1990</b>

Conversion factor: 1 mi<sup>2</sup> = 2.59 km<sup>2</sup>

## ECONOMIC SUMMARY

Just as Oceania is peripheral with respect to the more highly industrialized regions of the world, most of the Pacific islands are peripheral with respect to Australia or, in the case of Polynesia, New Zealand. These two countries, home to about 75% of Oceania's population, are highly urbanized and industrialized, and enjoy a Western standard of living. Their economies are much more solid and differentiated than those of the other Pacific islands, which are based on precarious agricultural and fishing activities, in some cases on mineral resources, and to an increasing extent on tourism.

While the smaller islands' mineral resources are essentially limited to nickel on New Caledonia, phosphates on Nauru, and gold and copper in Papua New Guinea, Australia is one of the leading producers of raw materials and fuels. In addition, Australia and New Zealand dominate trade with many of the Pacific islands, keeping nearby islands in a form of subjugation by managing their commercial, economic, technological, and financial relationships with stronger markets.

Within Oceania, a special relationship links New Zealand and

Australia. Both nations are characterized not only by a shared colonial origin with a British imprint, but also by very similar political, cultural, and economic systems. Australia possesses enormous areas of farmland, huge mineral wealth, a solid self-sufficiency in energy, diversified industry, and five times the population of New Zealand. As a result, 20% of New Zealand's foreign trade takes place with Australia, although this accounts for only a small fraction of the latter country's trade volume. This commonality of interests is flourishing under the stimulus of a free trade treaty between the two nations signed in 1990. These special bonds between Australia and New Zealand are reflected by tourism, which grew slowly between 1945 and 1970, then increased rapidly in volume to the point of accounting for a substantial portion of each country's economy. And significantly, the largest flow of tourists is between the two nations.

Tourist traffic essentially mirrors the complex political and economic links present not only within Oceania, but also between Oceania and the more advanced countries of the world. Leaving aside interchanges of tourists between the two, Australia and New Zealand are destinations for visitors arriving from (in descending order) southeastern Asia, North America, and western Europe. The ranking is different in Melanesia, where the principal influx comes from Australia, then North America, then New Zealand; and is different again in Micronesia (Japan, North America, other Pacific islands) and Polynesia (North America, New Zealand, Australia). It is interesting to note that Micronesia, with its fascinating little coral islands, already attracts more tourists than Melanesia and Polynesia put together.

In today's environment, however, the small, peripheral economic areas are exposed more to the power of multi- or transnational corporations than to that of their own governments. As decisions are made in centers of power far away from Oceania, the minor economies of the southwestern Pacific become increasingly vulnerable to the vicissitudes of the global economy, especially in terms of market strategies and new investment decisions. In Australia and New Zealand, this vulnerability has recently been aggravated by the deregulation of financial markets, relaxed controls on foreign investment, and a reduction in efforts to protect manufactured products.

It is ironic in a way that after a few decades in which so many countries in Oceania gained political independence, the most significant trend of the 1990s seems to be a growing dependence of the small economies of Oceania on actions by corporate powers taking place far away from this immense but still isolated part of the world.

## HISTORY AND CULTURE

As far as the most ancient traces of human presence are concerned, the region of Oceania presents a series of questions that researchers have not yet succeeded in answering completely. Although it is universally agreed that human settlement in these islands resulted from successive migratory waves originating from southeastern Asia in the Pleistocene period, it is more difficult to determine how these populations became distributed, over the millennia between then and the present, over such a vast geographic area, reaching even the most far-flung islands, mixing and interbreeding to produce groups as clearly

differentiated as the Australian Aborigines, the Micronesians with their Asiatic features, and the light-skinned Polynesians (descendants of more recent arrivals who probably came from maritime areas around China). Henri-V. Vallois explains:

*We know that the subdivisions of Oceania are not so much geographic as anthropological. Each region, except Micronesia, is the almost exclusive habitat of a particular human group: Polynesians, Malays, Melanesians, and Australians each represent a physical type, in other words an independent race. In these circumstances, there would seem to be little point in combining all these island regions, and it would be preferable to make each of them an anthropological region. Recent studies have demonstrated, however, that matters were more complex than they seemed. On many Oceanic islands there also exist, alongside the predominant races, more or less clearly defined primitive elements. Moreover, this entire part of the world was populated in a series of migrations, moving from northwest to southeast, the successive waves of which extended simultaneously to a large number of island groups. All of this gives Oceania as a whole a certain unity....*

Assisted by winds and ocean currents, human populations spread over the archipelagoes comprising the "water continent," and the process by which they subsequently adapted to its various climatic and environmental conditions led to the creation of a wide variety of material cultures. The Australian Aborigines remained at a very primitive level, living a nomadic life based on hunting and gathering, using rudimentary tools such as the spear, club, and boomerang. Further advances occurred on the Polynesian islands, where agriculture, hunting, and fishing were practiced; these activities were passed on from there to New Zealand, and were further developed by the Maori.

Social structures varied from simple clan groupings in Melanesia, where tribes interacted with one another on the basis of kinship systems and totemic bonds, to the relative complexity of the Maori, with their aristocratic society in which specific roles were performed by the nobility, priests, and warriors. A similar heterogeneity characterizes artistic production, which varies from Australian rock paintings, with their obscure ritual and mythical symbolism, to Melanesian masks full of expression, the abstract elegance of Polynesian linear decoration, and the monolithic colossi of Easter Island. On close inspection, a shared religious sensibility is evident beneath these very different forms of artistic expression: a shared faith in the mysterious force which creates and animates the world, expressed as the vital force of one's ancestors, to be preserved and passed on specifically by means of the symbolic representations of religiously inspired art.

The Polynesians were careful observers of nature, and possessed a wealth of meteorological and oceanographic knowledge that was vital for sailing. Folco Quilici describes their achievements.

*In this arena it was not just an elite, but many Tahitians who demonstrated uncommon knowledge indicating a true "sailing sense" with regard not only to the sea (the strength and direction of waves, swells, and currents) ... but also to the atmosphere (seasonal differences in winds, clouds, weather predictions, etc.)...*

*In Tahitian cosmogony, the winds were powerful representatives of the gods, and warned the people of certain dangers by murmuring mysterious things.*

*For the Polynesian navigators who made long journeys under sail (puddles were used only during periods of calm and for arrival and departure maneuvers), a knowledge of wind direction was essential. That direction was indicated in relation to the east, and the Tahitian compass card lists the names of the winds according to their provenience, and sometimes their strength.*

*According to various authors, the horizon was divided into 12, 16, and sometimes even 32 parts, which allowed the pilot to maintain his course. The winds were also subdivided and classified. The most famous were the northeast wind, Toereau; the east wind, Maouae; the southeast wind, Tou; and the southwest wind, Uru, which became Uruqa when it was strong. Lastly, the most feared wind was that from the south, Maramā.*

*There were also navigational instruments. It is certain that the Polynesians did not have many, but tradition has passed on to us the name of only one, along with its ability to "tell" the Polynesians their position at sea on the basis of the stars; this was the famous, but highly dubious, "sacred gourd." Here is what Bisschop says about it:*

*"It was in fact a gourd whose end had been cut and emptied under the circular rim thus formed, a series of holes had been made at a certain accurately calculated distance. The gourd was filled with water, to a level reaching this series of holes.... How was it used? Simple: they sailed north. After they crossed the equator, the Pole Star appeared, and rose farther above the horizon every day. They knew that when it reached a certain height, known to the high priests, they had come to precisely the latitude of Hāwāii; if they then sailed with the wind astern, they could not miss the islands...."*

*At that point the "sacred gourd" indicated a "magic angle": if it was held perfectly horizontal (and one could tell when it was horizontal when the water level touched the series of holes arranged in a circle), it was used to sight through one of those many holes at the Pole Star, which would just touch the rim when the boat had reached the latitude of Hawaii."*

It is surprising to find that a world as rich and fascinating as that of the Oceanic islands did not immediately seize the attention of European navigators, who—once the Pacific had been discovered by Vasco Núñez de Balboa in 1513—ventured onto the "southern sea" along the long-sought route to the Indies.

Although the West had inherited from the Middle Ages the Ptolemaic idea of a fabulous and extraordinarily wealthy "Terra Australis incognita" located at the Antipodes, the routes to the Indies for many years skirted Oceania; Magellan himself made his crossing of the Pacific almost without realizing the existence of dry land. In addition, the islands that were gradually discovered (the Marianas by Magellan in 1521; the Solomons and Marquesas by Alvaro de Mendaña in 1568–1595; the New Hebrides by Pedro de Queirós in 1606) did not seem to offer the abundance of gold and spices that the Europeans expected. The voyages made by Abel Tasman and the other Dutchmen of the East India Company in the first half of the 17th century revealed the outlines of the Australian continent and of major islands such as New Zealand and Tasmania, but were not followed up for similar reasons.

More than a century passed before voyages of exploration to the South Seas were resumed; this time, the mirage of spices and

gold having faded, they were made in a modern scientific spirit. Credit for this "rediscovery" goes to the Englishman James Cook, who sailed from Plymouth on August 25, 1768, in command of the *Endeavour*, charged by the Royal Society with reaching the other hemisphere to observe the conjunction of Venus with the sun. His purpose was not only astronomical but also geographic and cartographic, and the three voyages he made within a single decade were sufficient to refute once and for all the "Terra Australis" hypothesis, and define with good accuracy the face of Oceania. Ranging from Cape Horn to the Antarctic Circle, from the Cape of Good Hope to the Bering Strait, Cook explored the Marquesas islands, the New Hebrides, New Caledonia, the east coast of Australia, and New Zealand.

Beyond their scientific value, his voyages were also very important in cultural terms, as a demonstration of the attention and respect that a European could devote to the native world, its different way of life, and its different relationship to Nature. In fact, the sensitivity displayed by Cook to the human aspect of the universe he discovered had no great consequences. As a practical matter, his expeditions, which combined scientific interest with explicit political goals, opened the way for the British conquest of the Pacific.

This conquest was a late one compared to those achieved in other parts of the world, and was initially limited to small areas and impelled by particular motives, such as the establishment of penal colonies. The process accelerated, however, in the later 19th century, intermeshing with the expansionist plans of France, the Netherlands, Germany, the United States, and Japan, and leading to a complete political partition of the Oceanic islands. Thus began the period of "systematic colonization" postulated by Edward Gibbon Wakefield, a period of intensive immigration involving massive influxes from Europe and Asia. For the natives, this collision with the white world was inexorably disastrous: many of the peoples of Oceania who had retained ways of life dating back to the late Neolithic were literally exterminated (the last representative of the Tasmanians, an old woman, died in 1876) not only by massacres, violence, and expropriation of their land by colonists, but also by epidemic diseases brought in by Europeans, and by the spread of alcohol and firearms among rival tribes. The more advanced Polynesian peoples, even though they experienced more moderate forms of colonization, saw the breakdown of centuries-old traditions, social systems, and cultures based on a perfect (albeit fragile) balance between humans and the natural world.

Nevertheless, the spiritual and material heritage that has always characterized the lives of the peoples of Oceania is rich and varied in the context of their natural environment. From a judicial and social point of view, the purposes and intentions of government among these populations are the same as in a modern society: to regulate the internal life and external relations of the community, keep the group united, safeguard food supplies, and maintain peace and established order within and beyond the community's borders. The borders of the territory over which the group asserts property rights are well known, not only to members of the group, but also to those of neighboring groups. Among the Tasmanians, a border violation was tantamount to a declaration of war. Sometimes an increase in population and the consequent need to expand its own economic base forced one local group to invade another's territory. Sir James Frazer reports

one such case involving a group of Australian Aborigines:

*They sent their public messenger to one of the adjoining sub-tribes, asking for a part of the latter's land. This was refused, as being against tribal law, and also because the taurai in question was not big enough to admit to the proposal. The former sub-tribe then sent to say they would come and take what they wanted. The latter answered that in that case they would appeal for justice and help to the neighboring subtribes. Thereupon both sides prepared for war, met, and, as usual, much talking and angry speech-making followed. It was at last agreed that next day an equal number from each side should fight it out, but when the time came the dispute was settled by single combat. This is the common cause and issue of a tribal quarrel.*

With the end of World War I, the German presence was eliminated and Australia and New Zealand joined the ranks of the colonial powers. But the forces that came to dominate all the others, and in the end clashed dramatically during World War II to establish supremacy in the Pacific, were Japan and the United States. Between 1941 and 1944, these vast stretches of ocean sprinkled with archipelagoes and coral atolls witnessed a series of intense air and sea battles which culminated in an American victory. Of course the conflict heightened the contrasts between the native and white worlds, leading to crises in the western region, especially New Guinea, where the untouched forests of the remaining Papua people were carved up for military purposes with a network of landing strips, airports, roads, and bridges.

The postwar period was a difficult one, during which Oceania was divided into spheres of influence dominated by the United States, Australia, and New Zealand, with negative repercussions both in environmental terms (enormous damage was caused by nuclear explosions, urban pollution, and the tourist industry) and on a human level: although the native populations have grown in recent decades, that growth has been accompanied by disturbing changes such as urbanization, ghettoization, and loss of cultural identity.

The future of the Pacific islands therefore looks troubled and problematic in many respects, and it is still linked to development decisions made by the Western world: it is imperative that the West set aside its hitherto facile fascination with the "exotic," escape from the literary and artistic myths it has been bequeathed by Melville, Gauguin, Stevenson, and Maugham, and see Oceania as it really is today, with all its needs and with a history that must be preserved as part of a heritage belonging to humanity as a whole.

## AUSTRALIA

**Geopolitical summary**

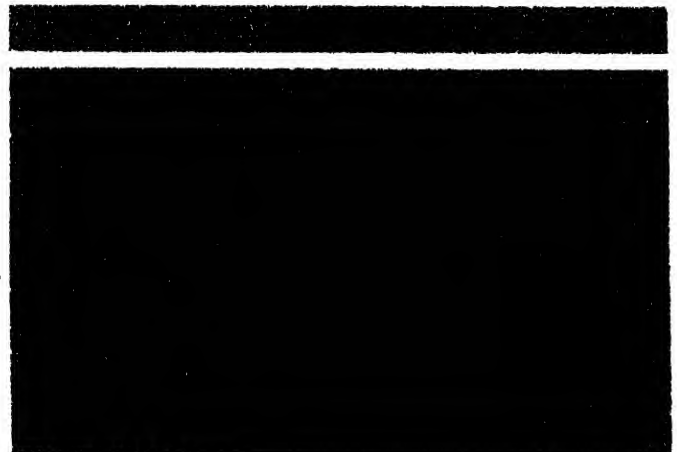
<b>Official name</b>	Commonwealth of Australia
<b>Area</b>	2,965,368 mi <sup>2</sup> [7,682,300 km <sup>2</sup> ]
<b>Population</b>	17,486,300 (1992 estimate)
<b>Form of government</b>	An independent nation, with a federal structure, within the Commonwealth. The head of state is the sovereign of the United Kingdom, represented by the governor. Legislative power is exercised by the Senate and the House of Representatives, elected respectively every six and every three years by universal suffrage. Executive power lies with the Federal Executive Council, presided over by the prime minister.
<b>Administrative structure</b>	6 states and 2 territories, subdivided into communes, cities, counties, etc.
<b>Capital</b>	Canberra (pop. 278,900, 1991 estimate)
<b>International relations</b>	Member of UN, the Commonwealth, OECD, SPC, Colombo Plan, and ANZUS
<b>Official language</b>	English
<b>Religion</b>	Christian 73%, of which Catholics constitute 26% and Anglicans 24%; 25% of the population professes no religion.
<b>Currency</b>	Australian dollar

**Natural environment.** Located in the Southern Hemisphere between the Indian Ocean to the west and the Pacific to the east, and traversed by the Tropic of Capricorn, Australia extends between 10° 41' S (Cape York, on the Torres Strait) and 43° 39' S (Southeast Cape, in Tasmania) and from 113° 09' E (Steep Point) to 153° 39' E (Cape Byron, south of Brisbane).

**Geological structure and relief.** Generally speaking, Australia's landforms and landscape have little variety, in that the mountain formations have long been exposed to erosion and decomposition from atmospheric agents. Moreover, much of Australia was not affected by the foldings of the Tertiary period; in fact, with the exception of the eastern slopes of the Great Divide and the Australian Alps, the reliefs date back to the Paleozoic era.

Despite the continent's uniformity, the coasts are rather well articulated; the northern coast, bathed by the Indian Ocean, the Timor Sea, and the Arafura Sea, is rocky, with numerous bays and fjords. The broad Joseph Bonaparte Gulf opens onto the Timor Sea, the large Gulf of Carpentaria onto the Arafura Sea. The western coast, bordered by the Indian Ocean, is high from Cape Leeuwin to Perth, becoming lower, sandy, and rather monotonous further north, with the exception of the projections that enclose Shark Bay. The southern coast also borders the Indian Ocean; the Great Australian Bight is completely lacking in harbors, since access to the sea is blocked by steep cliffs; toward the east two deep, narrow bays, the Gulf of St. Vincent (across from Kangaroo Island) and Spencer Gulf, open up. The eastern coast, bordered by the Coral Sea and the Pacific Ocean, has inlets that have allowed the development of port facilities. The northeastern coastline is fringed by the 1500-mi [2400-km] long Great Barrier Reef, which acts as an enormous natural dam against which the ocean waves break.

The coral islands in this area result from the formation of colonies composed of billions of minuscule polyps, called madrepores, on submerged volcanic cones. These small animals have an external skeleton of a hard, calcareous material, which remains unaltered after the animal's death. Colonies are superimposed, one upon another, growing an inch or so each year; when the madreporic mass emerges from the sea it captures particles of earth and sand, in addition to seeds and granules of pollen borne by the wind, over time building up an island of material. This process determines the formation of islands (generally circular "atolls") and coralline rocks along the coast, sometimes joined in more extended formations, or "reefs." In order to survive and thrive, the madrepores require limpid, rather rough, tepid waters (with temperatures never lower than 68°F [20°C]); it is easy to imagine the splendid submerged world of the reefs composed of coral walls and multicolored



seaweed and populated by a particularly rich and varied fish life. Mary Ann Harrell has written about this immense, marvelous natural landscape:

*Nothing conveys the grandeur of the reef like an aerial view. Early one Sunday I joined a couple of parkies—marine park staff—on an air patrol from Cairns. We droned up into golden light, eastward over green isles and sandy cays and coral labyrinths that span the horizon. Deep channels ran a vibrant ultramarine; shallows ranged from pale blue to brown-gold; other reaches glowed in the subtle greens of weathered copper. Upsun the breeze raised tiny gold-foil crinkles over the slow advance of ocean swell. We watched in vain for dugong, the endangered sea mammal still common here. Near a sand islet called Beaver Cay, we looked for manta rays—and found one: a huge dark fish with pectoral fins like batwings ten feet long, flapping its uncanny slow-motion way through a lazy current.*

*A spot called Low Isles, mangrove habitat near Port Douglas, gives low-tide views of finna from the intertidal zone—"a very, very harsh environment," explained the biologist guide on a beach walk. In the shallows, we saw soft corals that resembled spaghetti, or dish-mops of thick yellow yarn. A few dead patches of hard coral had been smothered by mud carried down the Daintree River. Tough as reef creatures are, they're ill-prepared for pollution.*

*Gazing at the coast north of Port Douglas, from a speeding catamaran, I was thrilled to see nothing man-made. Forested highlands looked as pristine as Captain Cook saw them when he edged warily northward among the reefs in 1770. Squinting into sun dazzle, I understood how these uncharted waters had menaced his small Endeavour and why he named a headland Cape Tribulation. Perhaps, I thought, I got here just in time. One spire, one high rise, one anything would have broken that illusion of time transcended.*

*Tides measure the hours on the remote reefs. The run to Agincourt Reef crosses shallows where the Aborigines hunted 18,000 years ago, when sea levels were lower and the land was dry. This reef lies near the edge of the continental shelf. Even on a calm day, combers striking a coral rampart hurled their white spray high. The catamaran moored at an underwater observatory. A semisubmersible ferried a German party around the site. A dive mast took the scuba mob to a trail of their own, and a small school of blue-finned snorkelers joined larger schools of fish in silky winter water, just cool enough. As the tour biologist said, "It's an animal garden, an animal landscape, an animal community with plants tucked inside."*

Even if the continent geologically consists of a single large block, from a morphological viewpoint it is possible to distinguish three large regions. The first region, the Great Western Plateau, or Western Australian Shield, a vast, ancient tableland with an average elevation of about 1000 ft [300 m], is the result of the breaking down of ancient mountain chains, the only remaining traces of which are some modest peaks: the Macdonnell and Kimberley Ranges. To the west of the former lie the Great Sandy Desert, the Gibson Desert, and the Great Victoria Desert, desolate lands covered with sand and scattered with "lakes," or more accurately, broad salt basins, almost always with very meager water levels. On the barren plains at the center of the continent rises Ayers Rock, a striking red sandstone formation, similar to a mountain with a chopped-off summit; it is the end result of an extremely long erosion process that has leveled the region (which is now extremely arid), leaving some

"rocky islands" such as this.

The second region, the East-Central Lowlands, extends from the Gulf of Carpentaria in the north to Spencer Gulf in the south, with an average elevation below 500 ft [150 m]. This depression is divided in two parts by the Grey Range, with the basin of the Murray and Darling rivers stretching to the southeast, and the Great Artesian Basin to the northwest. The latter is an immense, arid, low region that derives its name from the abundance and wealth of subsurface aquiferous layers. Drilling there causes water to spurt out spontaneously (artesian wells) or rise to easily reachable levels (subartesian wells). These highly saline waters are not usable for human needs, but are tolerated by animals.

Finally, the Eastern Uplands consist of the Great Dividing Range, or Great Divide, formed by a group of plateaus, the remains of ancient eroded relief formations. The Great Divide stretches southward into the Australian Alps; here, Mt. Kosciuszko rises, over 7300 ft [2229 m] high, the tallest peak in Australia.

Tasmania, separated from the continent by the Bass Strait, is a mountainous island. It is dominated by a central, volcanic plateau, strongly eroded and scattered with lakes, some of which lie at elevations above 5000 ft [1500 m].

**Hydrography.** Australia's only important river basin is the Murray-Darling (351,260 mi<sup>2</sup> [910,000 km<sup>2</sup>]), located west of the Great Divide. The Murray and Darling rivers (which, after merging, flow into the Indian Ocean near Adelaide) are torrential in nature, and subject to prolonged dry and sudden full periods.

The central depression region, which usually lacks surface water, is dotted with large closed basins, generally occupied by temporary shallow lakes, and for most of the year made up of vast muddy surfaces covered with salty incrustations. The largest is Lake Eyre, the area of which averages around 3500 mi<sup>2</sup> [9000 km<sup>2</sup>]. In reality it is impossible to speak of absolute area in connection with these lakes; during the violent rains (which last for very brief periods) the waters overflow, covering large surrounding areas, only to then vanish quite suddenly, either through evaporation or absorption into the soil.

All the Australian regions with desert climates have ancient river beds; these creeks, which bear witness to the very different environmental conditions that prevailed in past epochs, fill up with water whenever there are sudden, violent cloudbursts.

**Climate.** Australia's location in the Southern Hemisphere, is antipodal to that of Europe, and consequently the seasons are precisely reversed with respect to the Northern Hemisphere. The Australian summer is at its height in January, while the dead of winter (which is never excessively severe) occurs in July. More precisely, Australia lies at latitudes 10° to 40°S and is cut almost in half by the Tropic of Capricorn. Its climate is characterized by a scarcity of rain, with more elevated temperatures toward the country's interior. Only along the eastern coasts and in the area around Perth does the annual rainfall reach 39–78 in. [1000–2000 mm]. The "productive" area is distinguished by a relatively uniform climate, with average annual temperatures that range from 81°F [27°C] in the north to 55°F [13°C] in the south.

Overall there are five large climatic regions: the southwest, north, southeast, savanna and prairie area, and the large desert zones.

The southwest constitutes a sort of "demographic island," quite different from the rest of "productive Australia"; it is a broad region that includes a coastal strip and the immediate



inland area between Shark Bay and the city of Albany. Here the temperate Mediterranean-like climate has favored the development of intensive agriculture and cattle raising.

The vast northern region that stretches from the Dampier Land peninsula in the Kimberleys region to the Cape York peninsula has a subequatorial climate along the coast and a tropical climate in the interior, with most of the rainfall occurring in the summer months. There is a predominance of evergreen eucalyptus, sometimes together with beechwood, and the marine life is particularly rich, with oysters, sea cows, tortoises, crocodiles, and great white sharks. The eastern portion of Queensland can also be included in this area; its climate is for the most part subequatorial to tropical (with abundant precipitation, favorable to the development of a stratified rainforest). Further south, in the area that extends down to Brisbane, subtropical forest predominates, finally giving way to evergreen eucalyptus. This region is inhabited by numerous marsupials, reptiles, and birds; the waters between the coast and the Great Barrier Reef are populated by a wealth of marine life.

The coastal region between Brisbane and the Eyre peninsula enjoys a temperate oceanic climate. Forests of eucalyptus and beechwood blanket the hills and mountains overlooking this stretch of the coast, where a large majority of the Australian population has settled. The climate of Tasmania is also distinctly oceanic; mild fluctuations in temperature and abundant rainfall (averaging over 59 in. [1500 mm] and well distributed throughout the year) are advantageous to the development of agriculture.

The passage from the temperate to the desert zones is marked by the tree-lined savanna and prairie (which in some places becomes a true steppe region). The savanna dominates, with its eucalyptus, baobab, and acacia trees, in the hot climates with winters north of the Tropic of Capricorn; this is the realm of the kangaroo and the emu. The prairies are characteristic of the hot, dry regions situated particularly along the interior slopes of the eastern mountain ranges. The construction of modern irrigation facilities has enabled the cultivation of wheat and the raising of cattle in these regions.

Deserts occupy the central and western portions of Australia, a broad area characterized by scant rainfall, high daytime temperatures, and strong diurnal and annual temperature fluctuations. The so-called "outback" or "never-never" consists of dense, red sand dunes, or rough stones or clayey surfaces covered by layers of salt and gypsum. One of the few plant formations that grow in this region is *Spinifex*, low, broad thorny bushes; the deserts are populated by dingoes and numerous species of reptiles, insects, and kangaroos.

**Flora and fauna.** Due to Australia's temperature and precipitation conditions most vegetation grows in the coastal areas, where, depending on the latitude, there is a predominance of tropical forests, eucalyptus, or deciduous trees. Proceeding toward the interior, the landscape soon changes to tree-lined savanna with gigantic baobabs; this in turn becomes grassy savanna and then desert steppe with low, thorny bushes. The center of the continent is occupied by true desert regions, with reddish sand dunes and expanses of solid rocks smoothed by erosion.

There are four fundamental types of vegetation areas in Australia: the bush, a region of scattered eucalyptus growth, with trees 100–130 ft [30–40 m] high on average, which extends into

the eastern part of the country; the mallee, made up of extremely tangled eucalyptus tracts, 13–16 ft [4–5 m] high, which covers vast areas of southern Australia; the mulga, similar to the mallee but made up of acacia trees; and the scrub, an impenetrable and continuous growth of dwarf eucalyptus, thorny acacias and other shrubs, which surrounds the vast central desert zone and is largely inaccessible to humans and animals.

Overall, Australia is relatively poor in plant species. The most common is eucalyptus, of which there are over 400 different species, and which can grow as high as 325 ft [100 m]. Eucalyptus is used in many industries; tannin is extracted from the bark, while the leaves produce oils used for the preparation of medicines, perfumes, cosmetics, and other products.

For a variety of reasons (the foremost of which is the isolation resulting from its long-ago separation from the supercontinent Pangaea), Australia is inhabited by extremely ancient animal species, not found elsewhere, which have been able to survive in the absence of competitive species. The deserts are inhabited by numerous reptiles, including the frightening moloch, or thorn devil, similar to a miniature dinosaur and covered with a thick pointed shell. The savannas are the domain of the emu, a large bird quite similar to the African ostrich. Platypuses, animals with duck-like beaks and webbed feet, live along the rivers; although they are mammals, they possess many primitive characteristics that link them to birds and amphibians. They lay eggs and can live equally well on land or in water, and they are monotremes, that is, they have a single channel for excretion, another trait that demonstrates their primitive stage of development. Australia is well known for its kangaroos, and the continent boasts over 50 species, ranging from those as small as rats to the great red kangaroos, which can grow to a height of over 6 ft [2 m] and can weigh more than 220 lb [100 kg]. The kangaroo is a more evolved mammal than the platypus, but it too has primitive characteristics. After birth, the young must pass a certain period of time (approximately seven months for the giant kangaroos) in a special maternal "marsupial pouch" where they are fed and protected. Kangaroos are both swift-moving and powerful jumpers (they can reach speeds of up to 38 mi [62 km] per hour and jump as high as 7–10 ft [2–3 m]). Another well-known Australian marsupial is the koala, which lives in the southern and eastern portions of the country. The koala's diet consists solely of eucalyptus leaves; they can tolerate no other food and do not even drink water. There are numerous birds, bats, and crocodiles. The only higher carnivore is the dingo, a wild dog that lives in the desert and semi-desert steppe regions.

**Population.** The first inhabitants of Australia were probably ancient Australo-Melanesian peoples who arrived from the archipelagoes of southeast Asia. At least 40,000 years ago these populations reached Australia, steering rudimentary boats past the Sunda islands, or going by way of New Guinea and crossing on foot over a land bridge now submerged by the Torres Strait. The Australoid geographic race, long-limbed and dolichocephalic (with oval skulls, elongated from front to back), settled throughout the continent in 500–600 tribes, each composed of several "bands," or groups of families. These people spoke over 200 different but related tongues, and led a semi-nomadic life within territories circumscribed by natural elements such as streams, rocks, and trees, dwelling in rudimentary huts or holes

dug in the sand; they were engaged in hunting (predominantly kangaroos) and gathering wild fruit, tubers, and roots. Ritual cannibalism was also practiced.

Strongly tied to the social nucleus of the clan, the Aborigines attributed a great deal of importance to traditions and to mythical and religious beliefs, in which totemism, initiation rites, dances, and a variety of figurative artistic expressions (paintings, rock carvings, statues and heads of wood, stone, and clay) associated with sacred rituals all played a major role. Their numerous secret-sacred ceremonies were often seen as the means by which they manifested a desire to ensure the continuance of their world according to the laws set forth by mythical common ancestors, or "Dreaming beings," who were thought to control all aspects of life.

In the 18th century the European colonizers clashed with these populations, who are estimated to have numbered somewhere between 300,000 and 1 million. For the Aborigines this was the beginning of a long, merciless annihilation, caused by illnesses disseminated by the colonists and previously unknown on the continent, by the progressive erosion of their culture due to the abandonment of original traditions, and by the spread of alcoholism, not to mention by the outright slaughter committed by white settlers seeking better lands.

Even during the 20th century, despite some initiatives taken following World War II to incorporate the Aborigines into the social life of the Australian state (particularly the 1948 "law on nationalities," which officially declared them "British citizens"), the Aborigines have never been integrated into the community and world of the whites. On the one hand, the more or less open hostility of the Europeans, and on the other hand the passivity or in any case suspicion of the Aborigines themselves, has led to a situation that remains difficult and fraught with conflict. Many of the approximately 230,000 Aborigines (or "Kooris," as they are sometimes called) who currently live in Australia reside on 300 reserves located predominantly in the Northern Territory, Western Australia, and Queensland. In 1980, however, the Aboriginal Development Act was enacted, which has interesting prospects; it sanctions self-rule of the reserves, which, through funds earmarked for self-administration, can acquire territories of particular historical and economic significance, in addition to allowing loans to families interested in buying houses or land or setting up businesses. This is part of a plan to revive a population and a culture seeking to regain its identity, above all searching for autonomous solutions that correspond to their own needs and interests.

Today the great majority of Australians are whites of European background. Initially these settlers came mostly from Great Britain; in 1840 Australia had about 200,000 white inhabitants (150,000 convicts and 50,000 colonists), almost all of them British. Within the span of a few decades the population grew rapidly, thanks to an increase in immigration (especially from Mediterranean and central Europe), which was due to numerous factors such as the discovery of gold, the development of sheep-farming and agriculture, and the growth of trade and mercantile shipping.

This situation is described quite well by Craig McGregor:

*Another fundamental demographic change has been the altering pattern of immigration. Up to the end of World War II, al-*

*most all immigrants came from the British Isles, reinforcing the Britishness of Australia's official institutions with their habits of thought, their social customs, and their preconceptions. New arrivals could feel at home in a country where they could drive on the left and pay for things in pounds, shillings and pence (the Australian dollar dates only from 1966, when the currency was decimalized). The nation's institutions were equally close to those of the mother country. Not only were the laws strictly after the British pattern, but judges wore the same archaic paraphernalia of robes and wigs....*

*But it was in the details of daily life that the British flavour of pre-war Australia became most apparent. A culture that had evolved in a cold, wet, northern climate was thrown into high relief when imported lock, stock and barrel into the sunny light of the tropical south....*

*Attitudes began to change in the course of the war. The shock of the Japanese threat, including the bombing of Darwin, led to a rethinking of attitudes that was to affect profoundly the structure of Australian society and ultimately to reduce the British influence. Politicians of all colours came to the conclusion that the continent was dangerously underpopulated, and had insufficient forces to defend itself. A policy of financially assisting immigrants with the costs of passage was adopted, and it was extended to settlers from continental Europe as well as from Britain. The result was a massive influx of almost 3 million newcomers, arriving at an average of 100,000 a year, until restrictions were again imposed in late 1974. By that time the proportion of Australians born overseas had doubled, from one in 10 to one in five. Fewer than one third of the new arrivals came from Britain; Italy provided about 16 per cent, Greece about 10 per cent, with Germany and the Netherlands also contributing substantial numbers.*

*The most recent trend has been a vast increase in the number of Asian immigrants. Since the 1950s, the infamous 'White Australia' policy, used in effect to disbar Asian entry, has been gradually eroded. By the early 1980s, roughly a third of all immigrants were Asian, and the "Asianisation" of the country was an issue beginning to arouse political passions.*

In 1881, the year of the first general census, Australia had a population of 2,250,000; in 1901 there were 3,773,800 inhabitants in the "Australian Commonwealth"; thirty years later the number had almost doubled, and in 1951 the total population was approximately 8.5 million. During the 1980s, growth settled down to an annual rate of 1.4%, of which 0.9% was due to natural growth and the remaining 0.5% to immigration. This latter phenomenon, after the two great migratory waves of the late 1940s and the 1960s, is now experiencing a decline due both to the economic crisis and to measures for the control of the ethnic and professional makeup of the immigrant population. These measures, following the ups and downs of the past decades, are undergoing a new restrictive phase. Of the 17,086,197 inhabitants in 1990, the predominant ethnic stock is still British, followed by Italian, Yugoslav, and Greek. Recently, however, there has been a decrease in the number of new European immigrants (approximately 20,000 people in 1985, with a clear predominance of English and Irish), and an increase in those coming from Asia (35,000 people that same year, a third of whom were Vietnamese).

In such a composite society there are numerous languages and religions, as well as a great variety of customs and traditions. This constitutes a rich and precious cultural heritage, which peo-



ple are seeking to safeguard and value as they define a "pluralistic Australia." The official language is English; there is complete religious freedom, with Christianity being the predominant faith.

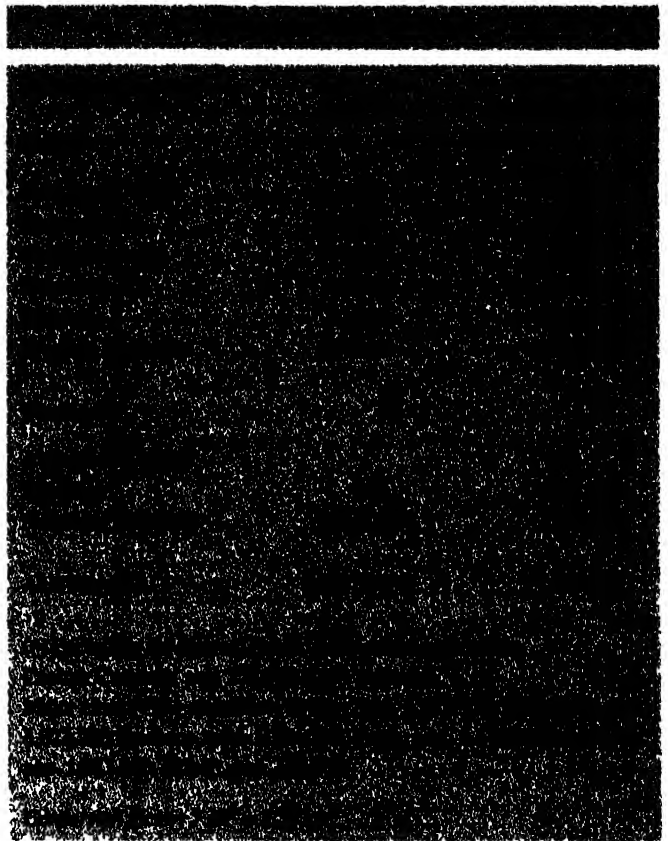
Some ethnic groups in particular, while integrated in many ways into the social and economic life of the country, have maintained their own customs over time, or have preserved a certain solidarity, defending ties and habits that come from a common origin. This has been the case—to cite one example illustrative of others—of the Italians who began emigrating to Australia at the end of the 19th century, initially drawn by the "gold rush" and then by the hope of finding satisfying employment. As early as the 1920s there was a rather cohesive Italian colony, made up for the most part of men, particularly farmers, floor-layers, laborers, and fishermen from all parts of Italy. These people's sole wealth often consisted of their labor, and they adapted to a life in the harsh conditions of the countryside (for example, working in the immense sugar-cane plantations in Queensland), coping with serious problems caused by language differences, social relationships, climate, and environmental conditions very different from those they had left behind. Some, however, managed to save enough to purchase small farms and to bring their families to Australia.

With the development of the industrial sector, some of these immigrants joined the Australian working class, enjoying to some degree the good social and health conditions that the strong workers' organizations ensured. The great emigration of Italians and other ethnic groups to Australia (and in particular to Victoria and New South Wales) took place after World War II. This second migratory phase, which was particularly intense in the 1950s, saw an increase in the percentage of people coming from southern Europe. Although they usually started out doing humble work and sometimes met with hostility on the part of Anglo-Saxon settlers (mainly as a result of prejudice, misunderstanding, and cultural differences), the immigrants were successful over time in attaining positions of importance in every field of Australian life. Today there are some 100,000 people of Italian descent, for example, in Australia; it is difficult to calculate their precise number with the passing generations. Even today, these immigrants feel a strong attachment to their homeland or the land of their parents or grandparents, and they constitute a particularly cohesive and organized social group, boasting numerous ethnic associations of various types, including newspapers and even their own television programs.

Currently Australia is underpopulated, with an average density of only 5.4 inhabitants per  $\text{mi}^2$  [2.1 per  $\text{km}^2$ ]. Although vast desert regions are practically uninhabited, this density remains modest even in the more populous areas; in Victoria and New South Wales, which are the two most heavily settled states, the average density is, respectively, 49.2 and 18.6 inhabitants per  $\text{mi}^2$  [19 and 7.2 per  $\text{km}^2$ ].

The population is particularly dense in certain coastal areas where the principal urban centers lie, while less than 15% of Australians live in rural areas. These are often immense expanses of grazing land, where cattle and sheep raising is widely practiced and where ranchers and farmers, who generally dwell on large isolated farms, live a hard, solitary existence.

Despite scientific and technological developments that have somewhat eased the rigorous effects of the country's physical environment (uneven distribution of rainfall and of surface and



underground water; difficulties in the construction and maintenance of transportation routes, etc.), the forces of nature still exert considerable influence on the population density, with the largest urban concentrations located in certain coastal areas at the edge of the more hospitable and arable regions. The resulting impression of these centers is more American than European, with broad streets often intersecting at right angles, and with a clear distinction between residential and commercial areas. Urban areas, with impressive skyscrapers, exist in clear contrast to vast neighborhoods of single-family dwellings (apartment buildings are less common). The residential suburbs of the main metropolises have spread rapidly in recent decades, not always following coherent urban planning. This has led to an extraordinary expansion of urban areas, with notable rush-hour traffic problems. The five most populous cities (Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane, Perth, and Adelaide) alone account for approximately 60% of the country's population.

Sydney, founded in 1788, is the oldest European settlement in Australia. The original settlements of Parramatta and Sydney Cove expanded over time to form a large urban area now encompassing about thirty municipalities over an area of more than 205  $\text{mi}^2$  [530  $\text{km}^2$ ]. Its population has grown precipitously in the last sixty years, jumping from 220,000 inhabitants in 1925 to over 3.6 million in 1988. The capital of New South Wales, Sydney enjoys an excellent energy system, based on the use of coal and on water sources that supply numerous iron and steel, metallurgical, machine, chemical, textile, and food-processing industries located at the city's periphery and in the port area between Port Jackson and Botany Bay. The particularly extensive and modernly equipped harbor is the most important on the

continent and a very busy port of call on the principal trade routes of the Indian and Pacific Oceans. A dynamic service sector (with great development of activities tied to transportation, trade, finance, telecommunications, and services to the business, scientific, and cultural worlds) contributes to making this metropolis the heart of the vast coastal conurbation that revolves around it, as well as a polarizing hub of extreme importance in the country's urban network and economic system.

Melbourne is Australia's second-largest city, with over 3 million inhabitants. The capital of Victoria since 1851 and of the entire nation from 1901 to 1927, it is the site of large machine industries (particularly automobile-related), and chemical and petrochemical industries, part of which spill over into the nearby industrial city of Geelong, which, located on an arm of Port Phillip Bay, constitutes, along with Melbourne, another important port system. Melbourne's continuous and often uncontrolled expansion has recently led to the application of a large regulatory plan for an area of over 1930 mi<sup>2</sup> [5000 km<sup>2</sup>], with the goal of planning metropolitan expansion toward certain principal axes of growth. Numerous Victorian-style public buildings (such as the Parliament and City Hall buildings), striking churches (such as the Anglican cathedral of St. Paul's and the Roman Catholic cathedral of St. Patrick's), three universities and many museums and art centers make Melbourne one of the liveliest cities in Australia from a cultural viewpoint, just as development of the banking and commercial sectors has made it one of the continent's major service centers.

Canberra, the present-day capital, deserves particular mention. Located in the Capital Territory, on the southwestern side of the Great Divide about 150 mi [250 km] southwest of Sydney and 400 mi [650 km] northeast of Melbourne, the city sits on a vast plateau about 75 mi [120 km] from the Pacific coast and is surrounded by mountains and prairies. This site was chosen "on paper" in the early 20th century, to balance the opposing and rival forces of the two principal metropolises, and to emphasize the capital as a symbol of national unity. Established as a legal entity by a 1911 decree and made the national capital in 1927, Canberra was built according to the design of American architect Walter Burley Griffin, who applied master plan theories for a zoned garden city. His plan has a geometric formalism with the main streets radiating from various cores and broad open spaces of greenery and an artificial lake separating the administrative, residential, commercial, and industrial sections. Present-day Canberra, which has over 300,000 inhabitants, is predominantly a political, administrative, and cultural center, supported by the skilled service sector that has developed there.

With a few exceptions (such as the industrial centers of New Castle and Wollongong in New South Wales and the tourist center of the Queensland Gold Coast), the other major Australian cities are the state capitals: Brisbane in Queensland, Perth in Western Australia, Adelaide in South Australia, and Hobart in Tasmania. Darwin, which has almost 70,000 inhabitants, is the main urban center in the Northern Territory.

**Economic summary.** Australia has an advanced economy, with a per capita GNP that is among the highest in the world (US\$17,740 in 1990) and a large percentage of the economically active population working in the service sector. All social indicators point to a high standard of living: social services are de-

veloped and widespread, the ratio of hospital beds per inhabitant is 6 for every 1000, that of automobiles 1 for every 2 inhabitants, and that of telephones 1 for every 1.8. Over 7 million kWh of energy per capita are produced annually, and approximately 70% of the population are homeowners. This does not mean that the country is spared certain inevitable problems related to the international economic situation, such as the global economic slowdown and the competition of other countries in markets for such products as meat, wool, and wheat that Australia has traditionally exported. These problems are mirrored by a rise in unemployment (almost 8% in 1990) and inflation. To contain the latter, during the second half of the 1970s the government placed controls on taxes, monetary policy, wages, and foreign trade, with overall satisfactory results. The country's exceptional economic potential is tied primarily to its great wealth of natural resources, still only partially exploited. On the other hand, Australian society has generally been conservative and jealous of its prosperity (based in part also on a forward-looking trade union policy in terms of demands and benefits), an attitude that is manifested in the country's restrictive and selective immigration policies. However the resulting scarcity of labor has somewhat slowed possible further economic development. This problem is further exacerbated by communication difficulties with certain areas in the interior, where some of the country's important mineral reserves are located. There is now a major opening toward nearby southeast Asia, with the consequent possibility of important future development expected to result from Australia's integration into the South Pacific geo-economic region.

**Agriculture and livestock.** Agriculture still plays quite an important role in the Australian economy, although it currently contributes less than 15% of GNP, largely due to the development of other productive sectors.

Farmland and orchards take up approximately 6% of the country's land area; prairies and permanent grazing lands over 54%, forests and woodlands almost 14% while the remainder of the land is uncultivated and nonproductive. Farming is limited to the coastal region facing the Pacific, Tasmania, the Murray-Darling basin, and the region around Perth. The principal problems facing Australian agriculture include a scarcity of water in many interior regions and frequently irregular rainfall, which can be scant or violent, and in some areas impoverishes the soil, carrying away its fertilized surface. Expansion of irrigation systems also presents difficulties, in part due to the danger of excessive exploitation of the phreatic strata. In Australia, the problem of irrigation has always been the center of debate, as described by Mary Ann

#### Socioeconomic data

Income (per capita, US\$)	17,740 (1990)
Population growth rate (% per year)	1.4 (1980-89)
Birth rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)	15 (1989)
Mortality rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)	7 (1989)
Life expectancy at birth (years)	77 (1989)
Urban population (% of total)	86 (1989)
Economically active population (% of total)	49.4 (1989)
Illiteracy (% of total population)	0.5 (1991)
Available nutrition (daily calories per capita)	3,322 (1989)
Energy consumption (10 <sup>6</sup> tons coal equivalent)	110.6 (1987)

Harrell in her recollections of a journey in the state of Victoria:

*In this century dams and locks and weirs have stabilized the Murray system, allowing irrigation. "This country wouldn't be worth two bob without water; it wouldn't feed a billy goat," said Don Oberin of Echuca as we drove westward to visit his dairy farm. "Out here it's flat all right; that little range there's a landmark and it's 145 feet high." The road ran straight for nearly 20 miles. "See the condo?" I didn't. It proved to be a mulga tree, all of ten feet high, with two magpie nests. We passed sheep fretting in the relentless sun, shoving their heads under one another's bellies for a spot of shade. Green replaced brown, abruptly: irrigated land.*

Another difficulty, namely the scarcity of fundamental components in the soil, particularly phosphorus, has been overcome through the massive use of fertilizers. As a result, agricultural production, while rather variable from year to year, is showing decided growth.

The high degree of mechanization and utilization of advanced technologies and structures currently allows a small number of skilled workers (equal to approximately 6% of the economically active population) to meet domestic needs and to guarantee a high level of exports in some sectors. Australian farms are generally family-owned, although in some areas (such as cheese production) tenancy leases are relatively common, or there are large investment companies in charge of management (as in many of the immense grazing "stations"). The average farm is about 350 acres [140 ha], but their size can vary from a couple of acres (which is the case for large specialized truck gardens, nurseries, and poultry farms) to tens or even hundreds of thousands of acres (such as the extensive sheep and cattle raising operations).

Wheat is one of the country's most important crops (10.6 million t in 1991), making Australia the fourth largest exporter of this grain in the world, after Canada, the United States, and France. Wheat is grown mostly on the eastern side of the Great Divide and in the Murray basin. Moderate amounts of barley, oats, corn, rice, rye, millet, and sorghum are also grown. The principal cash crop is sugar cane (3 million t of sugar were produced in 1991), which is grown principally in Queensland and New South Wales; these same territories also cultivate cotton (which is also grown in Western Australia) and tobacco (also produced in Victoria). Fruit (apples, pears, apricots, peaches, pineapples, and bananas) is grown predominantly in the states facing the Pacific; citrus cultivation is widespread in New South Wales and grapes in Victoria and South Australia.

Animal husbandry, traditionally practiced in Australia, still constitutes an important source of income. Sheep farming is particularly important, with 163 million head (75% of which are prized merino sheep) and 603,000 t of wool cleaned in 1991, making Australia the world's largest producer of wool. Most of this activity takes place along a broad coastal strip in Western Australia and in a vast arid or semi-arid interior region that stretches from Queensland to South Australia. The grazing lands often extend over some hundreds of acres, fenced in to protect the pasturelands from rabbits and the sheep from dingos. Approximately 90% of the wool produced is exported, chiefly to Japan, the countries of the former Soviet Union, and the EC markets. Cattle raising is also important (23.4 million head in 1991); milk cows are generally raised intensively on farms that

average 250 acres [100 ha] in area, located in the southwest and along the Pacific coast. Cheese production is abundant. Beef cattle are allowed to range over wide areas in the Northern Territory and along the Queensland coast, where they are left in a wild state on farms that stretch for thousands of acres, and where small numbers of herders control the livestock, communicating by radio, airplane, and helicopter. The processing and export of frozen meat is significant, and the raising of fowl (ducks, geese, and chickens) and pigs is expanding.

The relatively meager forest land is located for the most part on the east coast of Cape York, in the southwestern region of the Great Divide, in Tasmania, and in the coastal region south of Perth. Modest amounts of valuable woods are taken from the forests, including numerous types of eucalyptus, oak, conifers, and acacia. In 1989 over 706 million ft<sup>3</sup> [20 million m<sup>3</sup>] of wood was forested, two thirds of which was used for construction, the rest for paper, plywood, and wood pulp. About 6% of the total forest area is currently set aside as national parklands.

Despite abundant fish in the waters surrounding Australia, fishing is a secondary activity for a population accustomed to seeking and finding its protein needs through livestock raising. The quantity of fish unloaded is rather modest overall; commercial production is based principally on tuna, salmon for canning, mullet, shark, and whiting; shrimp and lobster are the most valuable fishing resource and constitute most of the exported catch.

**Mining resources and industry.** During World War II Australia was transformed, in slightly less than one generation, from a predominantly agricultural state into a country with a solid industrial structure. Currently industrial activities employ approximately 27% of the economically active population and account for 50% of the country's exports and 35% of GNP. The abundance of natural resources is one of the most important factors that has allowed the development and consolidation of this economic sector, which is now extremely varied and diversified. Australia is rich in numerous raw materials, and from the initial exploitation of gold and coal to the recent discovery of rare tantalum (used in the electronics and aerospace industries), mining has become progressively more productive.

Craig McGregor has described the discovery of gold as the greatest upset in Australian history:

*In 1851, gold was discovered at Bathurst in New South Wales, and then a few months later at Ballarat, only 100 kilometres from Melbourne in the recently separated colony of Victoria.*

*The colonial establishment looked on the finds with horror. The Sydney Morning Herald predicted "calamities far more terrible than earthquakes or pestilence", while the Bathurst Free Press, closer to the scene of the action, declared that "a complete mental madness appears to have seized every member of the community". They had a point. Virtually overnight, Australian cities emptied in a fortune-hunting stampede, and, as word spread round the world, boatloads of eager new immigrants jammed Australian ports.*

*The people came from every social class. "There were merchants, cabmen, magistrates and convicts," wrote one observer, "amateur gentlemen ... fashionable hairdressers and tailors, cooks, coachmen and lawyers' clerks and their masters, doctors of physics and music, aldermen, an ADC on leave, scavengers, sailors, a real live lord on his travels—all levelled by community of pursuit and of costume."...*

*Certainly, the goldfields brought immense wealth to the colonies. At peak production, the Victoria fields yielded something like a third of the world's supply. Their most important contribution, though, was not to be measured in precious metal, but in the people who came to seek it. Successful or otherwise, most of them stayed on. In 10 years, the population of the country trebled, and it became obvious that Australia was no longer a colonial backwater to be administered from London for the convenience of the British government.*

Australia is the world's largest producer of bauxite (approximately 44 million t in 1990), which is extracted mostly in the Gulf of Carpentaria region and the area of the Darling Range (Western Australia); the Weipa deposits in Queensland are one of the richest on earth. Australia is also fourth in the world (after Brazil, China, and Russia, and on a par with the Ukraine) in the production of ferrous minerals (approximately 68 million t of iron in 1989); most of the ore mined throughout Western Australia has a higher than 50% metal content. The production of zinc and lead is also essential to the economy (Australia's production is, respectively, second and first in the world), with principal reserves located in Queensland, New South Wales, and Tasmania.

Copper, nickel, manganese, tin, and uranium complete the country's mineral resources. Uranium is particularly abundant in the Northern Territory and in Western Australia, but its extraction and commercialization raise political and public opinion problems.

Most of the electrical power produced is of thermal origin; the country's principal energy source is coal (over 161 million t in 1989), which is found in New South Wales and Queensland. Lignite, also abundant, is taken from immense open-cut mines in Gippsland for the large thermoelectric power plants of Victoria and other states, to which the mineral is sent compressed into the form of briquettes. The first oil field was discovered in 1961 in Moonie, 185 mi [300 km] west of Brisbane; since then other hydrocarbon reserves, both liquid and gaseous, have been identified and exploited in Victoria, Queensland, South and Western Australia, and offshore along the coast of the Northern Territory. The country still imports approximately a third of its crude oil. The refining industry is very active, with installations in Geelong, Kurnell, Altona, and Hamilton, where imported oil is also processed. On the whole, Australia does not avail itself of its abundant hydroelectric resources; in this regard the greatest potential is in Tasmania and on the eastern slopes of the Great Divide.

Despite state and federal incentives for decentralizing the industrial sector, the largest industries in Australia are located for the most part close to the sources of energy and to the largest cities. The most important industrial areas are in or near Sydney (including the coastal centers between Port Kembla and Newcastle), Melbourne (as far as Latrobe Valley), Brisbane, Adelaide and the coastal region of the Spencer Gulf, and the area of Perth and Fremantle. The iron and steel industry is especially well developed, with considerable cast iron and steel production. Numerous metallurgical installations process copper, lead, zinc, and aluminum. Among the machinery industries (for which Sydney is the traditional epicenter), aeronautics and automobile production are well established; the electrical and electronics industries

are also important. The chemical sector manufactures a great number of semi-finished and finished products: acids, fertilizers, textile fibers, pharmaceuticals, plastic and synthetic rubber objects, and the like. Textile manufacturing (with the production of cotton and wool textiles and yarns) and the food-processing industry (from canning to pasta; from plants for processing milk and its byproducts to immense slaughterhouses and refrigeration plants at the large meat-shipping ports such as Melbourne, Brisbane, and Adelaide) are also extremely significant.

In terms of advanced technology fields, Australia is very active in space communications. Its tracking stations provide essential support for launches carried out by NASA. There are also important telescopes and observatories for radio astronomy.

**Commerce and communications.** The service sector constitutes the most important segment of the Australian economy, employing almost 68% of the economically active population and contributing 61% to the national income. Within this sector foreign trade is of fundamental importance; the primary trading partners are, in descending order, Japan, the U.S., and Great Britain. Australia exports chiefly minerals (coal, aluminum, lead, zinc, and iron), agricultural products (wheat and sugar), and live-stock products (wool and meat), while it imports mainly machinery and equipment to support the mining and manufacturing industries. As mentioned, Australia has recently sought new relationships with markets in Asian and Oceanic countries, making incisive commercial inroads in the geopolitical area of the South Pacific.

Financial activities are also well developed. The banking system includes commercial and merchant banks, savings institutions, and insurance companies, which transact business both domestically and abroad. The 1980s saw a growth in investments of foreign capital.

The development of transportation and communications has traditionally been of fundamental importance to the Australian economy. Indeed, these fields are vital in such a vast country, whose inhabitants have always had to combat the "tyranny of distance." The considerable distance between major cities and the presence of many isolated areas are among the factors that have contributed to an early and, over time, increasingly well developed air transportation system. Numerous airlines provide regularly scheduled flights on a network of routes that covers approximately 124,000 mi [200,000 km], and includes over 400 airports, the main ones of which are in Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane, Adelaide, Canberra, and Perth. The Royal Flying Doctor Service, conceived back in 1928, is well known; today it operates from 12 central bases, serving an area of over 1 million mi<sup>2</sup> [3 million km<sup>2</sup>] with specially equipped aircraft, and aiding over 100,000 patients annually.

The road network exceeds 525,000 mi [850,000 km], of which approximately half are paved. The state capitals and major centers are all linked by superhighways, traveled by over 9 million vehicles.

Railroad lines extend for almost 25,000 mi [40,000 km], linking the principal centers and connecting certain mining, agricultural, and industrial areas to the ports. The longest line connects Perth and Sydney and is almost 2500 mi [approximately 4000 km] long.

In 1990 the merchant marine had 721 ships at its disposal, with an overall gross tonnage of 2.75 million t. The principal

ports coincide with the state capitals or with industrial centers (such as Port Hedland in Western Australia, Newcastle in New South Wales, and Gladstone in Queensland). Sydney is clearly the busiest port, and a destination point for the most important trade routes of the Indian and Pacific oceans.

Telephone, telegraph, and telex services are well maintained and extensive. Information systems are varied and diversified; there are daily newspapers and magazines, radio and television stations, both state and private, national and ethnic. Within the service sector foreign and domestic tourism plays a significant role, and there has been rapid growth in recent years. The boundless interior spaces, ocean beaches, islands of the Great Barrier Reef, parks and national reserves with their natural riches, and the modern and lively cities are among the destinations most visited by tourists, who can avail themselves of a modern infrastructure that is able to meet their growing demands.

**Historical and cultural profile. Prehistoric Australia.** Stone tools, skeleton remains, and rock paintings constitute the scanty remains on the basis of which scholars have attempted to fathom the most ancient human past on Australian soil. According to some it is a past that dates back 40,000 years, according to others, even more. During the last glacial epoch migrations from Asia were facilitated in part by the lower water level of the ocean. These peoples first settled in the northeastern region, and over the course of millennia the early inhabitants moved down along the coasts and rivers toward the south and the interior of the continent, which, despite its scarcity of game and edible plants, still presented an environment favorable to human settlement. As Craig McGregor writes:

*They came from South-East Asia, and for the most part they walked... Like every human being at the time, they were hunter-gatherers, foraging in small bands; they may have fled in haste from violent neighbours or idly meandered after game and wild fruits, taking generations in the crossing...*

*Their continent, however, was not a paradise. The same climatic changes that had isolated it from the rest of the world had stricken much of it with perpetual drought, and few areas offered an easy living. Like all hunter-gatherers, they were semi-nomadic and ranged over vast tracts of territory to make the most of a scanty food supply. Materially, they had few possessions, and no weapon was more advanced than a stone-tipped wooden spear or the curious throwing stick they called a boomerang; except in the cooler, southern regions, they rarely troubled to make clothing.*

*Culturally, though, their lives were rich and complex. Over the quiet, uncharted centuries, they developed a marvellous web of totems and taboos that not only allowed them to harvest the frugal necessities of life from an often forbidding environment, but also provided intense spiritual satisfaction. Everything was magical; but it was usually a magic based upon acute observation of the natural world. Everything was part of the whole. A man could see his ancestors in a rock or a star, or in a kangaroo upon a far horizon. A whole people lived in a state of permanent communion with the world about them, transcending birth and death and time itself. That timeless lifestyle lasted for millennia and, undisturbed, might have lasted for millennia more. But only distance and the ocean protected it; half a world away, in Europe, a very different kind of people, aggressive and ambitious, were finding how easily distance could be abolished.*

Millennium after millennium, the life of these aboriginal populations remained unchanged, with a combination of extremely simple material conditions (nomadism, hunting and gathering activity, exclusive use of wood for tools) and surprisingly rich social and symbolic structures.

In terms of social organization, local groups ("bands") related to contiguous groups through increasingly expanding systems, up to tribal and super-tribal structures based on territory and regulated by complex kinship ties and totemic bonds.

From a spiritual viewpoint the Aborigines have carried down to modern times a worldview centered on the notion of mythical ancestors and invisible forces. Images of "wandjina," the mysterious "creators" that inhabit a restless and ghostly realm, and of propitiatory elves or spirits, depicted for magical-sacred rituals, have been found in cave paintings throughout the Kimberleys and Arnhem Land. An Australian myth tells about the origin of the Sun:

*In ancient times there was no Sun; only the Moon and stars shone together in the sky. There were no human beings on earth, only birds and some animals larger than those we know today. One day Dinevan the emu and Bralga the gru took a walk together. But a misunderstanding arose between them and they began to quarrel. Bralga flew into a rage and hurled himself at Dinevan's nest, seized an egg, and with all his strength flung it skyward, where it hit a pile of firewood and broke into pieces. The yellow egg yolk scattered all over the pile of firewood and ignited it, so that the entire world was suddenly illuminated by the burning wood. Until then there had been only a very weak light on earth, and now those below remained blinded by the intense glare of the fire.*

*The good spirit who lives in the heavens liked the light and thought it would be very nice to have a fire like that every day. And so he established this custom: every night his servant spirits would gather firewood, and when the pile was ready he would bring out the morning star and announce that the fire was ready to be lit.*

*But he noticed that the visible announcement of the morning star alone was not enough to wake the sleeping people on Earth and he began to look for a sound effect to accompany the signal. But he wasn't able to find an individual capable of producing the appropriate sound.*

*One evening he was listening to the "cock-a-doodle-doo" laugh of the rooster. "This is what I need!" he said and gave the bird the task of laughing every morning, before the pyre was ignited. If he neglected his duty, the pile of wood would not be lit.*

*Since then "cock-a-doodle-doo" has done his job so well that he always remembers to laugh at the right moment every morning, and he finishes by crying out his name three times: "Cock-a-doodle-doo! Cock-a-doodle-doo! Cock-a-doodle-doo!"*

*In the morning when the spirits light the fire it is not very hot at first. But toward midday, when the entire pile is burning, it becomes quite hot on Earth. Then the heat gradually diminishes until, in the evening, only a tenuous red glow remains, which is quickly transformed into gray ashes. Only some small wood timbers are left burning during the night, carefully wrapped in clouds, so they can be easily ignited again when morning comes. If the rooster, a very irritable creature, were ever made fun of, it would cease crowing in the morning and the Earth would once again be enveloped in darkness.*

Precisely because of the preeminence accorded the supernatural element over the material, the world of the Aborigines was



unable to withstand the colonizing advance of the Europeans and was threatened with extinction. In the late 18th century there were perhaps 300,000 Aborigines; according to the 1930 census there were only about 61,000 (plus 18,000 of mixed descent). Although the subsequent impressive growth of their population has brought the number much closer to pre-European levels, the Aborigines make up just 1.5% of the current total population of the country.

**Colonization.** Until modern times the Australian continent remained nearly completely isolated, even though Charles Darwin's 1879 discovery of a jade statuette from the 14th century supported the idea of a possible presence of Chinese navigators along the northern coasts. The Europeans who, since ancient times, had wondered about the *Terra australis incognita*, hypothesized by Ptolemy, did not reach the continent's shores until the 17th century, with the systematic explorations of the Dutchmen Willem Jansz (1605), Dirck Hartog (1616), and Abel Tasman (1642 and 1644). The Spanish expedition of Lu s V ez de Torres (1605) came close, discovering the Torres Strait but failing to sight the Australian landmass. The apparent poverty of the territory, however, discouraged further expeditions for more than a century, until the arrival of the Englishman James Cook (1770), whose discoveries led to British settlement of the Australian continent, in particular the eastern region which he called New South Wales.

The importance of this discovery was confirmed less than two decades later, when Great Britain began to take an interest in Australia, almost as a provisional solution to compensate for the loss of the American colonies, which in the meantime had obtained their independence. In particular, without the possibility of using Virginia as a penal colony, ships transporting convicts were directed toward distant New South Wales. The community that grew up in the area called Sydney Cove, after the Home Secretary, Lord Sydney, was certainly unusual: a citizenry composed of convicts serving life terms and prison guards, government officials and free emigrants ("exclusives"), and freed prisoners ("emancipists"). Among the convicts was a small number of women, for the most part former prostitutes. In the early decades of the 19th century the breeding of Merino sheep, which proved to be quite profitable, gave a certain homogeneity to this varied aggregation of people and pushed the initial colony to expand in search of new pasturelands and new terrain.

Thus the first half of the 19th century saw the concomitant phenomena of the country's economic takeoff, systematic colonization to the detriment of the Aborigines (with several major exploratory expeditions into the central desert region), and the rise of the sheep farmers as a dominant class, with their abusive takeover of vast grazing lands in the interior.

As the colonists moved away from New South Wales they gradually established other crown colonies: Tasmania, Western Australia, South Australia, Victoria, and Queensland. These gained autonomy in 1850, with the passage of the Australian Colonies Government Act, and they were given one of the most advanced constitutions of the time, which provided for universal male suffrage (although limited to whites) and the secret ballot.

The first literary works, which date back to the 1820s, were based on English literary models, but they reflected the problems and sentiments of a society emerging from colonization.

During the second half of the 19th century the six colonies all

underwent, in various ways, an impetuous process of development. The discovery of gold fields unleashed a "gold rush" and a consequent immigration explosion that, in the span of fifty years, brought the population from 400,000 to 4 million. To livestock raising was added the cultivation of cotton and sugar cane, for which a veritable "slave trade" of 11,000 Malaysians was launched, despite British opposition to forced labor. On the other hand, the growth of the mining, construction, and manufacturing industries led to the establishment of a strong and unionized working class, which at the end of the century found political expression in the Australian Labor Party. Pressure exerted by the working class was responsible for important social advances, such as the eight-hour workday, compulsory and free education, and women's suffrage (1894-1902).

**The 20th century.** The passage from the 19th to the 20th century was a period of general ferment in Australia, not only because of the affirmation of basic rights in the social and political arenas, but also due to the development of nationalism. It is not coincidental that the country's culture, until then a simple reflection of Anglo-Saxon culture, began to claim a specifically Australian identity. Between the last decade of the 19th century and World War I the Sydney magazine *Bulletin* became a rallying point for intellectuals and artists with nationalist and egalitarian (if not republican) tendencies. The literary results of this climate were notable, and in the ballads of A. B. "Banjo" Paterson and the novels of Henry Lawson, Tom Collins, and Marcus Clarke, with their characters that pulled themselves up out of the bush and their folkloric themes and sense of intact and boundless nature, Australian literature reached still unsurpassed levels.

These same themes inspired contemporaneous developments in painting; the works of Tom Roberts and other landscape painters of the so-called "Heidelberg School," are important for their artistic achievements as well as their documentary value.

During this period new poets and prose writers emerged, such as Katharine Susannah Prichard, author of *The Pioneers*; and *Black Opal*. Vance Palmer was another novelist from this period (*The Man Hamilton*, *The Swayne Family*, and *Legend for Sanderson*). It could be said that after 1920 the novel took root in Australia at the expense of other literary genres that had been successful until then, particularly in the 19th century (namely the story and the ballad). Author Henry Handel Richardson (pen name of Ethel Florence Lindesay Robertson) wrote some significant novels, including a trilogy, *The Fortunes of Richard Mahony*.

In the 1930s the big city, with all its contradictions, difficulties, and problems, became the dominant theme in novels (Leonard Mann, *A Murder in Sydney*). During this period the short story came back into fashion in the work of Vance Palmer and others, as did poetry, particularly by Robert FitzGerald, Hugh Raymond McCrae, and other followers of the "universal poetry" movement.

On January 1, 1901, the Commonwealth of Australia was proclaimed, in response to widespread nationalist feeling in the country. Without cutting all ties to the British crown, an independent, federal-type state was established, made up of the six original former colonies, plus the Northern Territory and Papua.

After the establishment of the new state, government rule passed back and forth between the liberals (whose policies

toward minority immigrants were conservative and often discriminatory) and laborites. The latter group had the task of coping with the negative repercussions of the global economic crisis in the 1930s, which abruptly interrupted the preceding boom period and resulted in a third of the Australian people being unemployed. However, the country's transformation into an industrial power resumed after World War II, once the Japanese attack in the Pacific was thwarted, thanks to an enormous wartime effort that cost 30,000 human lives and a close alliance with the U.S. (General Douglas MacArthur had his general headquarters in Melbourne). During World War II Australia embarked on a period of economic prosperity that was based on intensified ties with the U.S., a new and consistent receptivity to migratory flows, particularly from Europe (with Italians and Greeks in the lead), and a stable political arena, dominated by the Liberal Party's Sir Robert Gordon Menzies's uninterrupted term as head of state from 1949–66.

In the last thirty years the country's domestic situation has become more complicated and contradictory, characterized on an economic level by the growing threats of inflation and unemployment, and on the political level by changes in power between the Liberal and Labor parties and by the advance of the new Liberal-Reformist Party. The role of international alliances is also more in flux, and along with the United States as a traditional partner (occasionally at odds with each other), there have been openings toward Japan and China. This phase has spawned its own reaction, a call from many sides for a new affirmation of "Australian-ness" as a breaking away from foreign cultural as well as economic dependencies. A host of artists has surfaced, in the fields of literature, painting, film, and music, who are expressing themselves with strong originality.

In literature, one of the outstanding authors of recent decades is Patrick White, who was awarded the 1973 Nobel Prize for Literature for his novel *The Eye of the Storm*. Significant poets have included Alec Derwent Hope, James McAuley, Judith Wright, David Campbell, Chris Wallace-Crabbe, Les Murray, Francis Webb, Michael Dransfield, Bruce Beaver, and David Malouf. There have also been modest achievements in drama, thanks to playwrights Ray Lawler and Alan Seymour and to developments in Melbourne in the 1960s, with the work of the young satirical authors David Williamson, Jack Hibberd, and Barry Oakley. The novel as a literary genre is enjoying particular vitality, with many followers of Patrick White and Hal Porter, such as Frank Hardy, David Ireland, Thea Astley, Shirley Hazzard, Dorothy Hewett, George Johnston, and Christina Ewen Stead.

Many Australian filmmakers have received international recognition, such as Bruce Beresford, Gillian Armstrong, Jill Campion, and, particularly, Peter Weir. The affirmation of a mature cultural identity has necessarily implied a rediscovery of the distant roots of this identity, with an emphasis on the culture and claims of the subjugated Aboriginal groups, which have asked to be recognized with full rights as Australian citizens.

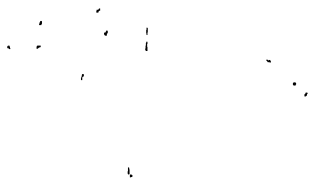
On January 26, 1988, Australia celebrated the bicentennial of its political existence, or, more precisely, commemorated the arrival of the first British colonists. The international press gave the event significant coverage:

*Many problems are facing this country that has begun its third century of existence. In 1947 the population numbered 7.6 mil-*

*lion, more than 90% of Anglo-Celtic origin. In 1973 immigration was opened up to practically everyone, and today the 16 million inhabitants represent more than 120 countries of origin. Over 100,000 refugees from Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia have arrived in Australia since 1975. The Hawke government has decided to encourage immigration in every way to revitalize the country's economy.*

*Thus the old policy of assimilation into Anglo-Celtic culture has been abandoned in favor of the construction of a multiracial society. Radio and television transmit programs in 50 different languages. The goal is international as well as domestic: to reduce Australia's difference from the states and microstates of the South Pacific in order to participate more effectively in the overall dynamism of the region.*

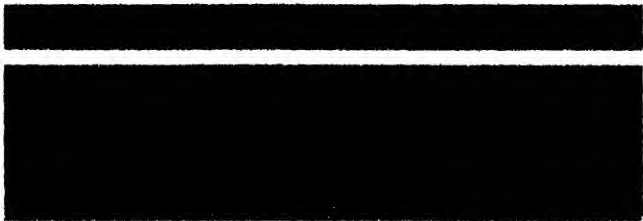
FIJI



Geopolitical summary

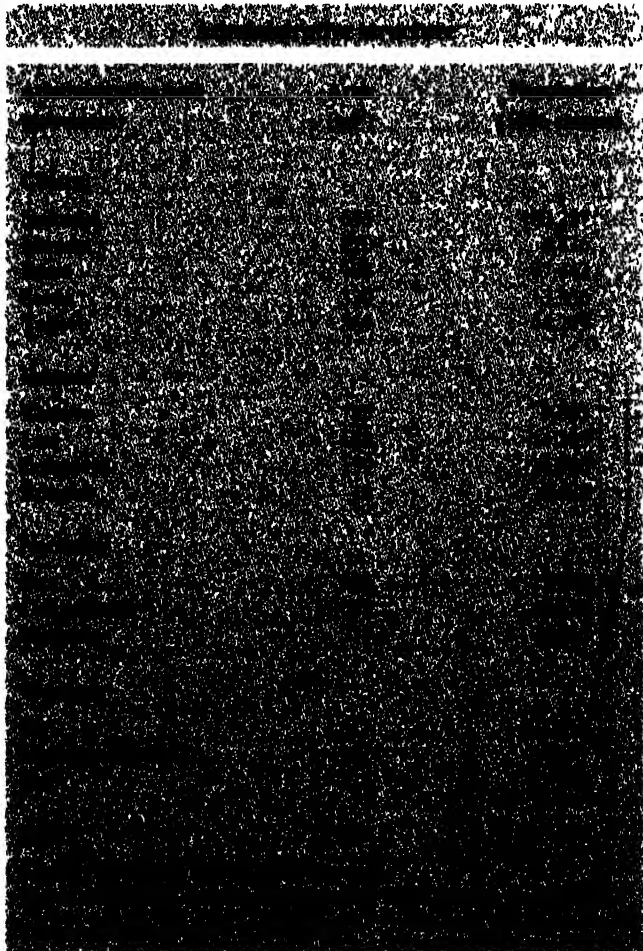
Official name	Sovereign Democratic Republic of Fiji
Area	7,056 mi <sup>2</sup> [18,274 km <sup>2</sup> ]
Population	736,000 (1990 estimate)
Form of government	Independent republic, formerly a member of the Commonwealth (until 1987). Executive power is held by the prime minister. The 1970 constitution is no longer in effect.
Administrative structure	15 provinces
Capital	Suva (pop. 69,665, 1986 census)
International relations	Member of UN, SPF, (South Pacific Forum), and associated with the EC.
Official language	English and Fijian, Hindi widely spoken.
Religion	Christian 53% (8% Catholic); Hindu 38%, Muslim 8%, other 1%
Currency	Fiji dollar

**Natural environment.** The archipelago of Fiji is made up of approximately 320 islands arranged in a horseshoe configuration over more than 38,600 mi<sup>2</sup> [100,000 km<sup>2</sup>] of the southwestern Pacific Ocean in Melanesia. The two principal islands, Viti Levu and Vanua Levu, account for almost 90% of the total area. The territory's ancient origins are predominantly volcanic, but eruptive activity has long ceased and the land has been subject to exogenous forces. The islands are surrounded by numerous coral-reef formations. The interior of the main islands is mountainous and inhospitable (with elevations exceeding 3300 ft [1000 m]), while the coasts are flat. The subtropical climate is hot and humid; temperatures are generally mitigated by sea breezes and by the southeast trade winds, and rainfall is more abundant along the southeastern slopes exposed to these trade



winds (over 117 in. [3000 mm] annually). These areas are dominated by ombrophilous forest, which gives way to sparse forest growth and tree-lined savanna in the less humid areas.

**Population.** The current population is 48.6% Indian, 46.3% Fijian, and the remainder European, Chinese, and Polynesian. The large Indian community is a result of forced immigration imposed by the British at the end of the 19th century in order to increase the labor supply on the sugar-cane plantations. Only a hundred or so of the 320 islands are inhabited, with over 730,000 people in an overall area of 7054 mi<sup>2</sup> [18,274 km<sup>2</sup>] and a density of 104 inhabitants per mi<sup>2</sup> [40 per km<sup>2</sup>], one of the highest of the Pacific archipelagoes. Two thirds of the population is concentrated on Viti Levu, and the rest mostly on Vanua Levu. Approximately 39% of the population is urban, predominantly Indians and Europeans involved in commercial and industrial activities. The principal population centers are located along the coasts; the most important of these is the capital, Suva, located





## Socioeconomic data

Income (per capita, US\$)	1,730 (1990)
Population growth rate (% per year)	1.4 (1980-89)
Birth rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)	26.8 (1989)
Mortality rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)	5 (1989)
Life expectancy at birth (years)	68.3 (1989)
Urban population (% of total)	38.7 (1989)
Economically active population (% of total)	-
Illiteracy (% of total population)	13 (1991)
Available nutrition (daily calories per capita)	2,785 (1989)
Energy consumption (10 <sup>6</sup> tons coal equivalent)	282 (1987)

on Viti Levu. Suva is a dynamic tourist center, as well as a lively commercial and shipping hub, site of an international airport, and home to a university attended by students from the English-speaking islands of the Pacific.

English and Fijian are the official languages; the Indians speak Hindi. Methodism and Hinduism are the most widely practiced faiths.

**Economic summary.** The country's plantation agriculture is based primarily on the cultivation of sugar cane and secondarily of coconut palm and bananas; there is lesser production of rice, sweet potatoes, cassava, tobacco, and cotton. The forests and fishlife resources are substantial. For some time there has been an attempt to avoid the dangers of single-crop agriculture (sugar has been subjected to considerable instability on the international market), with great value placed on the developing tourist industry.

The principal mineral resources are gold, silver, and copper. While basic manufacturing activity is lacking, there is a rather extensive food production sector (consisting in particular of sugar refineries and oil mills); lesser industries include cement works, breweries, and tobacco and cotton processing.

Sugar is the chief export, while the main imports are industrial products. The principal trading partners are Australia, New Zealand, Great Britain, and Japan. Transportation facilities consist of 2,989 mi [4,821 km] of roads, a modest railroad system, and expanding maritime and air services.

**Historical and cultural profile.** Before their discovery by Europeans, the Fijian islands were populated by groups of Melanesian origin who had reached a high degree of civilization. The islands were visited by James Cook (\*774), William Bligh (1787), James Wilson (1797), and Jules S. C. Dumont d'Urville (1838), before becoming a British crown colony in 1874. The vast sugar-cane and cotton plantations desired by the English necessitated the importation of foreign workers, mainly from India. The number of immigrants was so great that problems of coexistence arose between the Fijians and the Indians. The latter soon became a majority, and this conflict then assumed center stage in the archipelago's history. There were racial clashes in 1959 and on the eve of independence, obtained in 1970 within the Commonwealth structure. In 1987 a coup d'état led by Colonel Sitiveni Rabuka broke off the final tie to the former mother country and proclaimed a republic, abrogating the constitution of 1970 with the goal of guaranteeing the hegemony of the Fijians. Three years later the government was returned to civilian rule.

## KIRIBATI



## Geopolitical summary

Official name	Republic of Kiribati
Area	328 mi <sup>2</sup> (849 km <sup>2</sup> )
Population	72,335 (1990 census)
Form of government	Presidential republic within the Commonwealth. The head of state also acts as governor. The legislative organ is the House of Assembly, elected every 4 years.
Administrative structure	3 island groups.
Capital	Bairiki, on Tarawa Atoll (pop. 25,154, 1990 census)
International relations	Member of the Commonwealth and SPF (South Pacific Forum); associated with the EC.
Official language	English and Gilbertese
Religion	Majority Catholic and Protestant
Currency	Australian dollar

**Natural environment.** The territory of Kiribati includes the Gilbert Islands, Ocean Island (or Banaba), the Phoenix Islands, and the Line Islands—some forty atolls that are scattered over an extremely large area of the Pacific Ocean immediately north and south of the equator and between longitudes 169° E and 148° W of Greenwich (and thus are traversed by the International Date Line). Their average altitude ranges from 10 to 26 ft [3 to 8 m] above sea level. The climate is equatorial, with rainfall ranging from 39 in. annually [1,000 mm] along the equator to 117 in.

Country	Area (mi <sup>2</sup> )	Population (1990)
Marshall Islands	70	49,000
Palau	17	15,000
Northern Mariana Islands	180	72,000

Capital: Marshall Islands (pop. 25,000)  
 Conversion factor: 1 mi<sup>2</sup> = 2.59 km<sup>2</sup>

[3000 mm] on the islands lying further north and south.

**Population and economy.** The Micronesian and Polynesian population speaks Gilbertese and English and is predominantly Protestant. The average population density is 220 people per mi<sup>2</sup> [85 per km<sup>2</sup>], but only about twenty of the islands are permanently inhabited, and approximately a third of the population is concentrated on the atoll of Tarawa, in the Gilbert Islands, where the capital, Bairiki, is located.

The economy is based on subsistence agriculture (taro, breadfruit, bananas, and vegetables), the cultivation of coconut palms, and fishing, an activity which is expanding. The termination of phosphate production on Ocean Island due to depletion of the reserves there has caused a serious economic crisis, resulting in an 80% decrease in earnings.

Trade takes place mainly with Great Britain, Australia, and Fiji. Transportation is assured through the ports of Ocean Island and Tarawa.

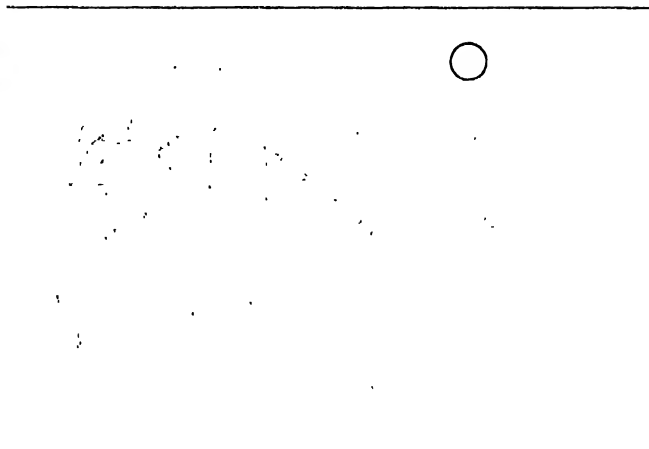
**Historical profile.** The Gilbert Islands, discovered by Europeans in 1769, are named for the English adventurer Thomas Gilbert, who arrived there in 1788. The Gilbert and Ellice island groups were merged under a British protectorate in 1892 and became a crown colony in 1915. The Ocean (1916), Christmas (1919), and Phoenix (1937) islands were later added to this group. Occupied by the Japanese during World War II, they were retaken by the Americans after bitter combat (the battles of Makin and Tarawa, 1943).

Four years after the Ellice Islands (later called Tuvalu) broke away from the colony (1975), the Gilbert Islands gained independence within the framework of the British Commonwealth, and became known by the name Kiribati.

#### Socioeconomic data

Income (per capita, US\$)	760 (1990)
Population growth rate (% per year)	1.2 (1985-90)
Birth rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)	17 (1990)
Mortality rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)	5 (1990)
Life expectancy at birth (years)	55 (1989)
Urban population (% of total)	33.5 (1989)
Economically active population (% of total)	-
Illiteracy (% of total population)	10 (1991)
Available nutrition (daily calories per capita)	2,952 (1989)
Energy consumption (10 <sup>6</sup> tons coal equivalent)	10 (1987)

## MARSHALL ISLANDS



### Geopolitical summary

<b>Official name</b>	Republic of the Marshall Islands
<b>Area</b>	70 mi <sup>2</sup> [181.3 km <sup>2</sup> ]
<b>Population</b>	49,000 (1991 estimate)
<b>Form of government</b>	Presidential republic; the head of state and of the executive branch is elected by the bicameral Legislative Assembly every 4 years.
<b>Administrative structure</b>	24 districts
<b>Capital</b>	Dalap-Uliga-Darrit (pop. 14,649, 1988 census)
<b>International relations</b>	Member of UN
<b>Official language</b>	English and Marshallese
<b>Religion</b>	Christian (Protestant 90%, Catholic 8.5%); Baha'i
<b>Currency</b>	U.S. dollar

**Natural environment.** The Marshall Islands are located in the Micronesian region of the northwest Pacific, east of the Caroline Islands (Federated States of Micronesia) and north of Kiribati, at latitude 10° N and longitude 170° E. The islands emerge from an underwater ridge that traverses the bottom of the Pacific Ocean and extends southward with the Gilbert, Tonga, Kermadec, and New Zealand archipelagoes. The Marshalls consist of two principal island and coral atoll alignments that stretch for approximately 806 mi [1300 km], predominantly in a northwest-southeast direction, and cover an area about 150 mi [240 km] wide. The outer island group, located to the northeast, is made up of the Ratak (or Sunrise) Chain; the inner group, to the southwest, comprises the Ralik (or Sunset) Chain. The archipelago (approximately 1150 islands and islets clustered in some 30 atolls), rather modest in size and nearly flat, occupies a total land area of 70 mi<sup>2</sup> [181 km<sup>2</sup>], while the total area of ocean covered exceeds 77,200 mi<sup>2</sup> [200,000 km<sup>2</sup>]. In the Ratak Chain the Likiep atoll's highest elevation is barely 33 ft [10 m]; in

## MICRONESIA

the Ralik Chain the Kwajalein atoll, with an area of 893 mi<sup>2</sup> [2313 km<sup>2</sup>], is the largest in the world. The climate is equatorial, with a temperature that averages approximately 75 °F [24 °C], fluctuating only slightly, and a year-round rainfall reaching overall levels of 117–156 in. [3000–4000 mm]. However, the northernmost islands have considerably lower precipitation levels, only up to about 20 in. [500 mm] annually. Typhoons are not very frequent, but when they do occur they are devastating. Storms of less force are rather frequent in the spring and autumn. The vegetation is also equatorial in nature; breadfruit, taro, hibiscus, and coconut palm are especially prevalent.

**Population and economy.** The current population of the Marshall Islands is 49,000 (1991), most of whom are of Micronesian origin; there is a very high birth rate. The population is chiefly concentrated on the Majuro and Kwajalein atolls. Government offices and the presidential palace are located on Majuro (in the D.U.D. municipality, which includes the islets of Darrit, Uliga, and Delap).

Agriculture (with taro, sweet potatoes, and breadfruit as the basis of a subsistence economy and coconut palm and cocoa grown as speculative crops), livestock raising (pigs), fishing, and tourism are the principal economic activities. Links to the outside world are assured by two airports located on the Majuro and Kwajalein atolls.

**Historical profile.** Discovered by the Spanish navigator Álvaro Saavedra (1529), the Marshall Islands were named for an English captain, John Marshall, who landed there in 1788. During the second half of the 19th century some Protestant missions were established, and in 1855 the archipelago became a German colony. On the eve of World War I (1914), the islands were occupied by Japan and then, in 1944, by the United States, which used the Bikini and Eniwetok atolls for atomic testing. After a long period of administration as a United States Trust Territory, the Marshalls became independent in 1990.

## Socioeconomic data

Income (per capita, US\$)	1,500 (1989)
Population growth rate (% per year)	3.9 (1991)
Birth rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)	47 (1991)
Mortality rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)	8 (1991)
Life expectancy at birth (years)	62.5 (1991)
Urban population (% of total)	47.8 (1991)
Economically active population (% of total)	—
Illiteracy (% of total population)	14 (1990)
Available nutrition (daily calories per capita)	—
Energy consumption (10 <sup>6</sup> tons coal equivalent)	—



## Geopolitical summary

Official name	Federated States of Micronesia
Area	270 mi <sup>2</sup> [699 km <sup>2</sup> ]
Population	110,000 (1991 estimate)
Form of government	Presidential republic with a federal structure. The head of state and of the executive branch is elected by the National Congress every 4 years.
Administrative structure	4 federated states
Capital	Kolonia (pop. 6000, 1990 estimate); the seat of government in Palikir
International relations	Member of UN
Official language	English; Micronesian dialects also spoken
Religion	Christian (predominantly Protestant, also Catholic)
Currency	U.S. dollar

**Natural environment.** The territory of the Federated States of Micronesia corresponds to over 600 islands in the Caroline Islands archipelago, including the Pohnpei, Truk, Kosrae, and Yap islands, the names of which are also used to denote the four federated states. The islands (a tenth of which are uninhabited), coralline and volcanic in nature, are scattered over an arc that extends for almost 1850 mi [3000 km], between latitudes 5°–8° N and longitudes 137°–164° E. They emerge from underwater ridges, such as the Yap Ridge, an extension of the Marianas

Ridge to the northeast and New Guinea to the south, delimited by the Yap Trench, which has depths as low as 28,200 ft [8597 m] below sea level; and the Kapingamarangi Rise, which encompasses the principal atolls in the federation. A smaller, suboceanic ridge, the Eauripik-New Guinea Rise, emerges between these two main ridges, forming the division between the West and East Caroline Basins.

The archipelago has an overall land area of 270 mi<sup>2</sup> [699 km<sup>2</sup>] and its ocean area exceeds 965,000 mi<sup>2</sup> [2.5 million km<sup>2</sup>]. The largest islands are Pohnpei (127 mi<sup>2</sup> [330 km<sup>2</sup>]), the third largest in all Micronesia, after Guam and Babelthuap (in the Palau Islands), Kosrae (41 mi<sup>2</sup> [107 km<sup>2</sup>]), and Yap (38 mi<sup>2</sup> [99 km<sup>2</sup>]). They are predominantly mountainous (Pohnpei has peaks rising to 2555 ft [779 m] and Kosrae to 2030 ft [619 m]) and generally covered with dense rainforests that, in the more interior regions, become stretches of savanna. The climate is oceanic-tropical, with average annual temperatures of 73–75°F [23–24°C] and rainfall ranging from 117–156 in. [3000–4000 mm] annually, carried for the most part by the northeasterly tradewinds that tend to taper off from January to March, reaching their greatest intensity during the months that follow and from October to December. The interior of Pohnpei, where up to 390 in. [10,000 mm] of rain can fall yearly, is one of the most rain-drenched locations in the world. The islands are occasionally in the path of violent typhoons (notorious ones hit Pohnpei in 1957 and 1986).

**Population and economy.** The population (110,000 inhabitants in 1991) is concentrated predominantly on the atolls of Truk and Pohnpei. The original Melanesians and Indonesians were later joined by Spaniards, Japanese, Filipinos, and Americans. The capital, Kolonia, is located on Pohnpei.

The economy of the Micronesian federation is affected by its small territory and great distances, which make trade and relations with other countries difficult. The basis of subsistence is agriculture and fishing, while mineral resources are rare. The principal sources of income are financial assistance from the U.S. and tourism, which has good prospects.

**Historical profile.** Discovered in 1528 by the Spaniard Álvaro Saavedra, the Caroline Islands remained under Spanish rule until the end of the 19th century, when they were sold to Germany. Occupied by Japan (1914), they came under U.S. control at the end of World War II, gaining independence in 1990 after a long period of U.S. trusteeship.

#### Socioeconomic data

Income (per capita, US\$)	1,500 (1989)
Population growth rate (% per year)	2.9 (1991)
Birth rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)	34 (1991)
Mortality rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)	5 (1991)
Life expectancy at birth (years)	79.5 (1991)
Urban population (% of total)	19.4 (1991)
Economically active population (% of total)	-
Illiteracy (% of total population)	10 (1991)
Available nutrition (daily calories per capita)	-
Energy consumption (10 <sup>6</sup> tons coal equivalent)	-

## NAURU



#### Geopolitical summary

Official name	Republic of Nauru
Area	8 mi <sup>2</sup> [21.2 km <sup>2</sup> ]
Population	9,600 (1992 estimate)
Form of government	Independent republic within the Commonwealth. The Legislative Assembly is elected every 3 years.
Administrative structure	14 districts
Capital	Yaren (pop. 559, 1983 census)
International relations	Member of Commonwealth and SPF (South Pacific Forum)
Official language	English and Nauruan
Religion	Predominantly Protestant; Catholic 24%
Currency	Australian dollar

**Natural environment.** The island of Nauru, located west of Kiribati, almost on the equator, is an oval, madreporic atoll surrounded by a coral reef. The narrow sandy beach gives way to a coastal belt only 650–1000 ft [200–300 m] wide, covered with dense vegetation, consisting mostly of coconut palms. This belt surrounds the island's center, a sort of dome-shaped plateau less than 150 ft [50 m] high, made up of phosphatic deposits.

The hot, humid climate (with average annual temperatures of about 81–82°F [27–28°C]) favors lush equatorial vegetation (coconut palms, bananas, mangoes, papayas, etc.) along the coast.

**Population.** Fewer than 10,000 people live on the island.



which has an area of just over 8 mi<sup>2</sup> [21.2 km<sup>2</sup>], resulting in a very high average density of 1142 inhabitants per mi<sup>2</sup> [441 per km<sup>2</sup>]. Over 60% of the population is indigenous (with characteristics that are a blend between Melanesian and Polynesian types), while the remainder is predominantly of Chinese or European background. The population is concentrated in small settlements located for the most part along the coastal strip. The most important of these is Yaren, the country's capital and main port. The most widely used languages are English and the local dialect (Nauruan); most inhabitants are Protestant.

**Economic summary.** The principal and almost exclusive economic activity of Nauru is the mining of the extremely rich tricalcium phosphate deposits that cover most of the island. Treated with dilute sulfuric acid, this material is transformed into monocalcium phosphate, commercially known as superphosphate, an extremely valuable fertilizer, of which Nauru is one of the world's foremost producers (almost 1.87 million t in 1987). The fertilizer is regularly exported to Australia, New Zealand, Japan, and South Korea. Nationalization of the deposits in 1970 represented a significant step toward this small state's independence, in both political and economic terms. On the other hand, this extreme product specialization is tied to a single, exhaustible resource (predicted to be depleted by the end of the century), and this poses a series of problems in terms of the unavoidable connection to the international market and the future of the country's economy. The development of transportation facilities (roads, port, and airport), the utilization of local crops and fish, and a series of medium and long-term projects (such as the possible transformation of the island into a "tax haven") are some of the solutions already being implemented or under consideration, to create and guarantee new sources of income for Nauru's dense population.

**Historical profile.** Discovered in 1798 by the English navigator John Hunter, who named it "Pleasant," the island was annexed by Germany in 1888. During World War I it was occupied by Australian troops. At the end of the conflict the League of Nations entrusted its joint mandate to Australia, New Zealand, and Great Britain, an arrangement that was renewed in 1947, after three years of oppressive Japanese occupation during World War II. An attempt by Australia to annex the island in 1964 led the inhabitants to push for independence, which they obtained in 1968.

#### Socioeconomic data

Income (per capita, US\$)	20,000 (1989)
Population growth rate (% per year)	1.6 (1983-89)
Birth rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)	21 (1989)
Mortality rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)	5 (1989)
Life expectancy at birth (years)	55.5 (1987)
Urban population (% of total)	-
Economically active population (% of total)	-
Illiteracy (% of total population)	5 (1979)
Available nutrition (daily calories per capita)	-
Energy consumption (10 <sup>6</sup> tons coal equivalent)	59 (1987)

## NEW ZEALAND



#### Geopolitical summary

Official name	Dominion of New Zealand
Area	104,426 mi <sup>2</sup> [270,534 km <sup>2</sup> ] (excluding overseas and Antarctic territories)
Population	3,427,796 (1991 census)
Form of government	Independent country within the Commonwealth. The head of state is the British monarch, represented by the governor. Legislative power is exercised by the House of Representatives, elected every 3 years. The prime minister presides over the Executive Council.
Administrative structure	14 regional councils (9 on the North Island, 5 on the South Island)
Capital	Wellington (pop. 149,598, 1991 census)
International relations	Member of UN, Commonwealth, SPC, Colombo Plan, and ANZUS
Official language	English
Religion	Predominantly Protestant; Catholics 15%
Currency	New Zealand dollar

**Natural environment.** New Zealand, located approximately 1240 mi [2000 km] southeast of Australia, is bordered on the east by the Pacific Ocean and on the west by the Tasman Sea.

**Geological structure and relief.** The two large islands that make up New Zealand (North Island and South Island), along with the smaller Stewart, D'Urville, and Great Barrier islands, rise above an extended but shallow underwater platform. The ridges that are connected to this broad shelf form, in addition to New Zealand, other oceanic archipelagoes, such as Tonga and

New Caledonia. The arrangement of these underwater ridges determines New Zealand's striking orographic system, with parallel mountain chains running the entire length of the two major islands.

On the South Island, where elevations often exceed 10,000 ft [3000 m] (Mt. Cook, 12,346 ft [3764 m] high, is the country's highest peak), the principal mountains are the Southern Alps. A series of ridges branch off from these, descending toward the southeast into lesser hilly rises, and progressing steadily toward the southwest as far as the coast, where they form highly articulated fjords.

On the North Island the Tararua, Ruahine, Huiarau, and Raukumara ranges run in the same southeast–northwest direction as the Southern Alps, but without reaching the same elevations; these mountains border the eastern edge of a large central plateau, the western border of which is defined by the Hauhangaroa Mountains. At their northern extremity they taper into the hills of the Auckland peninsula, a long strip of land formed by the seeping of ocean waters into the alluvial basins, a phenomenon that causes an extremely fragmented coastline with a wealth of deep inlets.

From a geological viewpoint New Zealand is characterized by the presence of sedimentary and metamorphic rocks from every era, from the Precambrian (limited to certain areas of South Island) through the Cenozoic, and particularly from the Tertiary period. The Pliocene epoch was especially dynamic; on the South Island the ranges of the Southern Alps rose to heights well above their current elevation, while the North Island was reshaped by intense eruptive activity. On the North Island the mountains in the north–central area and the isolated Mt. Egmont have recent volcanic origins (indeed, the Maori call this land the "Smoking Island"). There are still frequent secondary volcanic phenomena, such as geysers, solfataras, and thermal springs, such as those in Waimangu as described here by Mary Ann Harrell:

*Near Rotorua the Waimangu Valley holds one of the newest geothermal areas in the world.... I toured it one day in the company of geologist Brad Scott and Averill Adlam of the District Council.... Brad talked proudly of the valley: "New Zealand's only undisturbed thermal area—no dams, no boreholes—and one of the best documented."...*

*"Before 1950 New Zealand had about 130 geysers," said Averill Adlam; "now there're fewer than 10. In the '50s the government decided to generate electricity at Wairakei. Vast quantities of geothermal heat have been drawn off there, and we've lost 30 geysers at Wairakei and 3 at Lake Taupo. They dammed the Waikato River in the '60s and we lost 90." Rotoruans drilled private boreholes for swimming pools and spas, some 800 wells by the '80s, and, Averill added, the town's geysers "started to stop."...*

*"We shouldn't have to go to Yellowstone Park to see a geyser!" Averill declared, as we went out to Whakarewarewa, the thermal area in a Maori community. We waited to see if Pohutu, grandest of them all, would perform. Pohutu muttered and rumbled and sent a giant white plume roaring up into white and chilly mist.*

**Hydrography.** On the South Island the longitudinal arrangement of the mountains within a long narrow territory has resulted in short, rapidly flowing rivers, abundantly supplied by

numerous glaciers and snowfields. Along the eastern slopes of the Southern Alps, numerous rivers flow in parallel descents: the Waiau, Rakaia, Waimakariri, Waitaki, and Clutha flow from north to south, in some cases fed by large, elongated lakes of glacial origin that lie at the foot of the mountain ranges.

The North Island has different hydrographic features. Some of the rivers there flow through the central plateau and are longer and more regular. The most important of these is the Waikato, which begins in the plateau, flows into Lake Taupo (volcanic in origin and the country's largest lake, 234 mi<sup>2</sup> [606 km<sup>2</sup>]), and after a course of over 200 mi [350 km], part of which is navigable, it empties into the Tasman Sea, not far from Auckland.

**Climate.** In general New Zealand has a temperate oceanic climate, with moderate seasonal fluctuations and a tendency to mild temperatures. In Auckland, for example, from January to July the average monthly temperature drops from 66°F [18.6°C] to 50°F [10.2°C], while in a southern location such as Dunedin the variation within the same time span ranges from 57°F [14.1°C] to 43°F [6.2°C]. The westerlies, or west winds, that blow continually throughout the year south of 39° latitude, the arrangement of the mountains, and the effect of the ocean act to mitigate seasonal fluctuations in climate. The country's extensive north–south range, however, does mean differences in climate, from subtropical at its northern extremity (making it possible to grow grapes and citrus on the Auckland peninsula) to severe and continental in the southern regions.

Precipitation is abundant and constant throughout the year, but distributed most uniformly on the North Island, where the mountains are less accentuated and dense. On the South Island the barrier constituted by the mountains of the Southern Alps is characterized by high amounts of rainfall, particularly on the western slopes (about 200 in. [5000 mm] annually above elevations of 6500 ft [2000 m]). In contrast, rainfall on the eastern slopes progressively decreases, leveling off at about 39 in. [1000 mm] annually and reaching its lowest point of 20 in. [500 mm] in the Otago region. The same difference between the two sides of the Southern Alps holds true for the snow line, which on the western slopes descends below 6500 ft [2000 m], while it is not unusual to find glaciers stretching among the slopes of tree-covered mountains at altitudes as low as 1000–1300 ft [300–400 m] above sea level.

**Flora and fauna.** New Zealand's original vegetation has been altered both by the Maori, for agricultural ends, and more profoundly in recent times by Europeans seeking to expand their grazing lands. This was a luxuriant flora, stretching from the northern to the southern tip of the archipelago, similar in certain





aspects to the vegetation of South America as well as that of Australia. Today this original flora can still be seen on the western mountain slopes, which are covered by a dense mantle of palms, tree ferns, lianas, and conifers (*Podocarpus*, *Dacrydium*, *Phyllocladus*, etc.).

While the surviving forests have an almost total absence of indigenous mammals, there is rich birdlife, including certain types like the kiwi (a nocturnal, wingless bird), the boobook (or mopoke, a small owl with spotted plumage), the weka (with habits similar to the thieving magpie), and kea and kakapo parrots. After the arrival of the Europeans the moa, a large, flightless bird resembling an ostrich that could grow up to 13 ft [4 m] tall, became completely extinct and is now known only through skeletons and reproductions in various museums. The takahe (wingless like the kiwi) was also considered extinct until 1948, when a colony of the birds was discovered near Mt. Murchison.

Today the flora and fauna of New Zealand are protected within numerous reserves and national parks, about ten of which are on the North Island and an equal number on the South Island. The most extensive park on the South Island is Fiordland National Park.

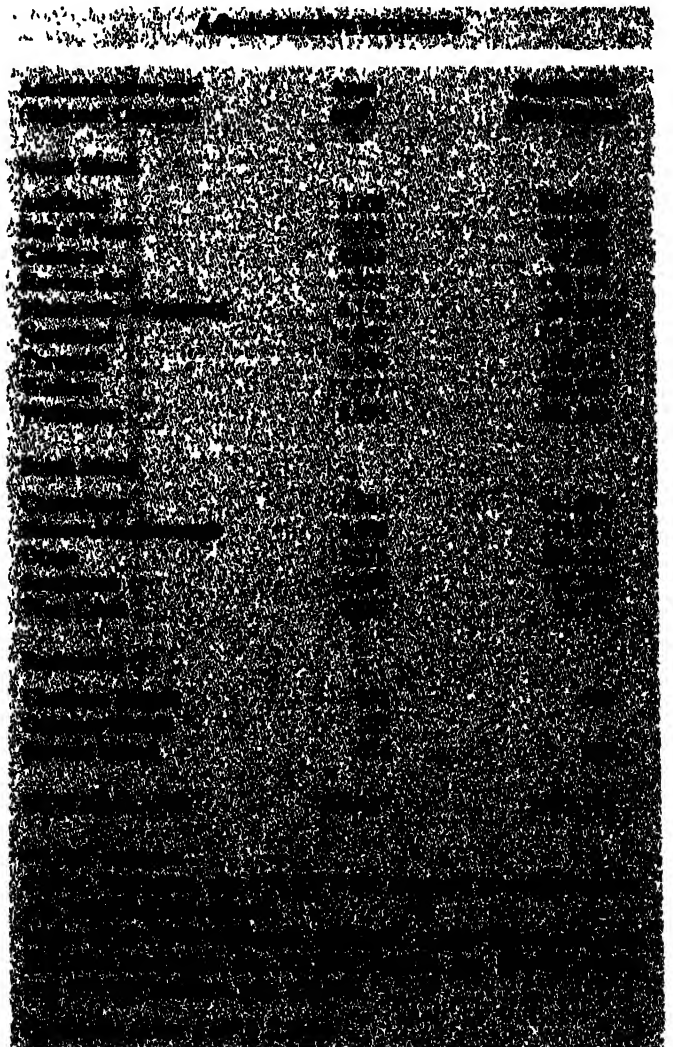
**Population.** New Zealand's population has long been characterized by conflict between the Maori, who have occupied the archipelago (mainly the North Island) since the 10th century, and the Europeans, who repeatedly attempted to take possession of the islands from the 17th to the early 19th century. At the time of Captain James Cook's voyages there were approximately 250,000 Maoris, but their numbers were so decimated by epidemics and wars with the Europeans that by the end of the 19th century their population had been reduced to 42,000, and extinction threatened. However, a high birth rate raised their population above precolonial levels, and they currently number approximately 300,000.

The present-day population of New Zealand is approximately 3.4 million, the great majority of whom are of European background, particularly of English, Scottish, and Irish descent, and still tied in outlook and culture to their forebears' native lands. The official language is English, and the Protestant faith is the most widespread religion (15% of the population is Catholic and there is also a small number of Jews). The European population did not arrive at a constant rate, nor were there any massive influxes of immigrants. The migratory waves of the 19th century, particularly strong during the gold rush of the 1860s, were impeded by restrictive immigration policies that dated back to the turn of the century. Thus the population increased according to natural growth, favored by rather advanced, "Scandinavian-type" social legislation and by a high standard of living.

The low demographic density of New Zealand is due to the country's settlement history and to a deliberately limited immigration policy. The population density is rather unbalanced between the North Island (where the average density reaches 57 inhabitants per mi<sup>2</sup> [22 per km<sup>2</sup>]) and the South Island (16 inhabitants per mi<sup>2</sup> [6 per km<sup>2</sup>]). In the former, which is favored by a gentler climate and more accessible terrain, the population is concentrated around Auckland and Wellington. These two cities, which have respectively 850,900 and 324,600 inhabitants, account for almost half the island's population, which gravitates around the industrial and commercial activities

tied to the two important ports. The rest of the population lives either in the coastal cities (such as Napier and New Plymouth) or in centers in the interior (such as Palmerston North and Hamilton). Given the presence of vast arable areas, however, a large percentage of the population also resides in rural villages and on isolated farms scattered throughout the most fertile regions. The same settlement patterns can be seen on the South Island, but somewhat simplified. There is a contrast between the coastal cities and the small centers that dot the arable regions. There are only two important urban centers, Christchurch, with 301,500 inhabitants, and Dunedin, with a population of 106,400. The smaller centers do not extend beyond the eastern coastal plains, while the country's interior remains for the most part uninhabited; rough terrain makes the Southern Alps region and its entire western slope particularly inhospitable.

In recent years the growth of the cities on both the North and South Islands has led to problems of poverty and marginalization typical of urban areas everywhere, and it has been the Maori who above all have paid the price. But while international economic difficulties have had repercussions in New Zealand, tarnishing the image of a society without tensions, these problems are mitigated by social welfare measures provided by legislation that is among the most advanced in the world.



**Economic summary.** Despite considerable progress in the diversification of productive activities, particularly in recent years, the basis of the New Zealand economy still lies in the agricultural and sheepherding sectors. This activity dates back to the time of British colonization, when vast wooded areas were transformed into permanent pastures and grazing lands, and the raising of Merino sheep was introduced on a large scale. Currently almost 51% of the entire land area is permanent meadows and pastureland, 27% is occupied by forests, and approximately 2% is set aside for farming and tree cultivation; the remainder of the land is uncultivated and unproductive.

This basic economic picture, which until the 1970s seemed to guarantee the country's continual progress, was somewhat undermined in recent decades by changes that occurred on the international political and economic scene. Primarily, Great Britain's entry into the EC and the limitations placed by the latter on certain imports from "outside countries" have led to a reduction of traditional commercial outlets for New Zealand, which until the 1950s channeled over 50% of its exports toward the former mother country. At the same time, and parallel to the global energy crisis and the stagnation of international prices for raw materials and basic food products, there was an increased need to import industrial and consumer goods as well as tools, indispensable for meeting domestic demand and for the technological development of local manufacturing activity. This created an essentially subordinate relationship with the principal industrialized nations, particularly Japan and the United States, although New Zealand has still managed to maintain a well-balanced economy, reflected in the rather modest unemployment rate (just over 7%), a per-capita income of US\$13,200 (1990), and a generally low foreign debt (estimated in 1989 at US\$19 billion). In contrast, GNP growth has been rather inconsistent, with a favorable period (1983–86) followed by a decline in more recent years.

**Agriculture and livestock.** Agriculture and animal husbandry represent the country's most significant economic sectors, both contributing directly to GNP (approximately 9%) and supplying the country's traditional industrial activities (processing of meat and dairy products, wool, and leather).

There are a large number of mid-sized farms (about 75–100 acres [30–40 ha]), well organized and often family-run, which, in addition to managing the country's rich livestock holdings, produce wheat (242,000 t in 1990), barley (508,200 t), oats, corn, potatoes, and tomatoes, destined for the most part for local consumption, as well as fruits and vegetables (strawberries, rasp-

berries, apples, grapes, and pears), most of which are exported. There is industrial farming of tobacco (1100 t in 1990) and New Zealand flax (*Phormium tenax*), from which a rather resistant textile fiber, similar to hemp, is made, and of which New Zealand is the largest producer in the world.

The country's principal economic resource is still livestock, with holdings consisting of some 57 million head of sheep and approximately 8.2 million head of cattle (1991), as well as a smaller number of pigs, goats, and horses. While the intensive raising of Merino sheep dates back to colonial times and is practiced on both North and South Islands (slightly more predominantly on the latter), cattle-raising was introduced more recently and for the most part benefits from the grazing lands on North Island. Livestock products, including meat, wool, dairy products, and hides, constitute the principal source of the country's monetary earnings.

The forests yield precious woods (over 353 million ft<sup>3</sup> [10 million m<sup>3</sup>] of logs and milled lumber were produced in 1989) and also provide chemical or mechanical pulp (over 1.1 million t) for paper and cardboard production.

**Mining resources and industry.** New Zealand is not particularly rich in major mineral resources, with the sole exception of coal and lignite (found in various mines located along the coasts of both islands, from which almost 2.9 million t were extracted in 1989), and, to a lesser extent, gold, silver, iron, and copper. Oil and gas reserves have also been discovered in Motorua, Maui, Taranaki, and Kotuku, which in 1989 yielded altogether approximately 10.7 million bbl [1,697,000 metric t] of crude oil and over 214,271 ft<sup>3</sup> [6070 m<sup>3</sup>] of gas.

The dense hydrographic network, with rapid rivers often fed by permanent snowfields, has favored the construction of numerous hydroelectric power stations (supplemented by geothermal plants fed by the Wairakei geysers) and provides the country with an energy output (total of 6,964,000 kW of installed power in 1989) that, at the current rate of production (approximately 29 billion kWh in 1989), supplies more than 75% of domestic needs. Other thermoelectric plants are located in New Plymouth, Marsden, Meremere, Stratford, and Whirinaki.

New Zealand industry (which overall contributes approximately 21% to GNP) is traditionally based on a network of cooperatives that brings together small and medium-sized enterprises dedicated above all to activities connected to livestock raising (the processing of meat and hides, the dairy industry, and textile manufacturing).

Since World War II, and particularly in order to meet domestic demands, other industrial activities have been developed in the areas of food processing, clothing and shoe production, furniture and appliance manufacturing, construction materials, fertilizers, and paper and tobacco production. Automobile assembly plants have been built (360,912 cars and 23,179 commercial vehicles were produced in 1990, mainly at the plants in Auckland and Christchurch). New Zealand's industrial sector (like that of nearby Australia) has perceived the need to adequately confront the increasingly aggressive nature of foreign trade (particularly that of Japan and other newly industrialized nations of southeast Asia, expressed for the most part in the supply of high technology products). As a result, considerable resources are being allocated to the development of its own advanced industry, particularly in the electrical and electronics, petrochemical, agro-

#### Socioeconomic data

Income (per capita, US\$)	13,200 (1990)
Population growth rate (% per year)	0.7 (1980–89)
Birth rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)	16 (1989)
Mortality rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)	8 (1989)
Life expectancy at birth (years)	75 (1989)
Urban population (% of total)	84.1 (1989)
Economically active population (% of total)	44.3 (1988)
Illiteracy (% of total population)	1 (1991)
Available nutrition (daily calories per capita)	3,393 (1989)
Energy consumption (10 <sup>6</sup> tons coal equivalent)	12.7 (1987)



industrial, and tourism sectors, which best take advantage of local resources and diversify manufacturing activities.

**Commerce and communications.** The relative instability of the New Zealand economy is reflected in the development of foreign trade, where the tendency for exports to exceed imports that characterized the country's trade balance until 1973 has given way to the opposite trend, with a 1983 trade deficit equal to US\$652 million. However, subsequent years have seen a tendency to restore the trade balance, along with a greater diversification of trading partners.

While continuing to maintain special relationships with the Commonwealth nations, in particular with Australia, New Zealand has considerably expanded the number of foreign countries that serve as both suppliers and customers (there are currently more than 100 markets for the country's traditional products), implementing a trade strategy that favors the importation of goods or services (particularly innovative technologies) from those markets that show interest in buying New Zealand products.

The highway network is particularly good, considering the rough terrain: almost 58,000 mi [93,000 km] of roads, of which over 31,000 mi [51,000 km] are paved, ensures the circulation of goods and people within the country. There is a modest railroad network (approximately 2700 mi [4300 km]), with the principal lines connecting Auckland to Wellington in the north and Christchurch to Dunedin in the south, and excellent air service, with the chief airports in Auckland, Christchurch and Wellington. The merchant marine had 135 ships in 1990, with a gross register tonnage of just under 300,000 t; the principal ports are Auckland, Wellington, and Lyttelton (Christchurch).

**Historical and cultural profile.** From the 10th to 14th centuries successive waves of peoples came from the eastern part of Polynesia to the two large islands that make up present-day New Zealand. Later known as the Maori, these groups arrived in long canoe-like boats, the legendary names of which (such as Arawa, Aotea, Matatua, and Horouta) remained to designate the various tribes, which, in the absence of a unifying organization, constituted these people's fundamental social structure. Archeological research has revealed that the oldest traces of human life in New Zealand, found in the mountainous regions, date back only to the mid-12th century. Folco Quilici has written in his book about the region:

*It is a boast for the Maori to cite descents from the Polynesian colonists who arrived in New Zealand ... on the first double canoes, the names of which are still remembered and venerated.*

*Look at Tainui, Te Arawa, Mutaatua, Kurahaupo, and Tokomaru*

*They all float on the vast oceanic descent*

*The tree trunk was carved in Hawaiki,*

*And thus Takitumu took shape.*

*One night was spent in Rangipo*

*And Atea took to the sea at dawn.*

*These are the canoes of Uenuku*

*The fume of which reaches the heavens.*

*Apropos of these earliest voyages of the Great Emigration from Tahiti toward New Zealand, Polynesian oral tradition tells us that:*

*The canoe Tainui under the command of Hoturoa was prepared to leave Hawaiki on the night called Orango (the twenty-seventh) of the lunar month of October-November. The elders advised Hoturoa to delay his departure until the stormy Tamatea (the nights from the sixth to the ninth) of the following month had passed, but Hoturoa responded: "I want to depart now and meet the Tamatea on the open sea." And, overcoming storms and dangers, he reached Cape Runaway safe and sound.*

*There is a widely held belief among scholars of the transmutations that the Polynesians pushed on as far as the subantarctic seas. In fact, according to Rarotonga mythology, the tales of the exploits of the distant ancestors include the story of a voyage to the extreme south by a canoe leader called Ui-te-rangiora.*

*He lived in the early part of the 18th century and with his boat Teivi-o-Atea set sail toward the distant south, where he saw the cliffs that rise out of the sea called Tai-rua-koko, long hair floating on the surface of the waters, the sea covered with arrowroot foam, animals that dove into the depths of the sea, a dark place where the sun could not be seen, with high white cliffs devoid of any vegetation.*

*All these marvels have been interpreted respectively as the sea south of Rapa, dark algae, the frozen sea, sea lions, the Antarctic night, and icebergs. And this information offers proof of the extreme frontier toward the Atlantic reached by the Polynesian fishing canoes.*

Gradually adapting to their new environment and engaging primarily in fishing, the Maori also proved themselves to be highly original in their artistic pursuits, making freestanding and bas-relief figures carved out of wood, which they used to decorate the prows and sterns of war canoes, and later, community buildings. Unlike the Australian Aborigines, the Maori strongly resisted European expeditions that attempted to take possession of the two islands. In 1642 they pushed back Abel Tasman, who called the islands "Staatenland" (Land of States); later the region was named New Zealand, after a Dutch province. The British explorer James Cook and the Frenchmen Dufresne and de Surville were repelled 130 years later, and the fame of the Maori's ferocity kept Europeans at bay until the early 19th century.

Only the fear of being preceded by France, during a period when the islands of Oceania were being divided up by the colonial powers, prompted Great Britain to intensify its attempts at conquest. To this end the New Zealand Land Company was established, the founder of which, Edward Gibbon Wakefield, managed to impose English sovereignty over the Maori chiefs in exchange for the protection of their ancestral lands (Treaty of Waitangi, 1840). Then "systematic colonization" began, as theorized by Wakefield, with an influx of pioneers, the spread of sheep farming, and the appropriation of the most fertile lands at the expense of the indigenous peoples, whose response was not long in coming. In 1845-48 and again in 1860-69 the Maori waged extremely bloody wars against the European settlers, but they emerged defeated and decimated, and by 1872 their "pacification" could be said to be complete.

Having overcome the sole obstacle to the colonial exploitation of the two islands, rapid economic development ensued, intensified by the discovery of gold and also, in the last quarter of the 19th century, by progress in the refrigeration industry, which allowed livestock raising to be oriented not only to the production of wool, but also to a massive production of meat for export.

Economic development was accompanied by continual polit-

ical and social progress. In 1907 Great Britain granted dominion status and administrative autonomy to the islands. Institutions became more democratic (with voting rights extended to women in 1893), and advanced social legislation protected workers' rights. This process of renewal, particularly evident during the Liberal era under the government of Richard Seddon (1893–1906), also influenced intellectual circles, which abandoned the reproduction of Anglo-Saxon models to courageously confront social issues.

After an early pioneering phase, there was a period of greater realistic interest in the lives of the Maori, seen in Alfred A. Grace's *Tales of a Dying Race* (1901) and other novels and in the works of Harry B. Vogel and Herbert Guthrie-Smith.

Although their work is uneven, the writings of Jessie Mackay, William Pember Reeves, and the feminist Edith Scarle Grossmann do bear witness to the fervor that animated the New Zealand world of the early 20th century. The most well known voice of New Zealand literature is that of Katherine Mansfield, a writer who was torn between the European world where she settled and loyalty to the almost mythic image of her native land. While this is a theme not directly tied to the "engaged" themes of so many other New Zealand writers of the time, her work is equally symptomatic of that atmosphere.

The period between the two World Wars was also important for New Zealand's development in terms of material progress, such as the nationalization plan pursued in various productive sectors by Labour Party Prime Minister Michael Joseph Savage; cultural accomplishments, seen in the flourishing of important literary magazines (*Phoenix*, *Landfall*, *New Zealand Poetry Book*); and renewed interest in studies of the local ethnic heritage. Thanks to this uninterrupted development, in the past fifty years New Zealand has been able to emerge as a significant power in the Pacific, moving away from the exclusive influence of Great Britain and building relationships with Australia and the United States, establishing diplomatic relations with The People's Republic of China (1972), and, finally, protesting against nuclear testing carried out by France in the Pacific Ocean.

Political power has alternated between the conservative National Party and the Labour Party, with the latter winning the elections of 1984 and 1987, and the former taking over after the elections of 1990.

## PAPUA NEW GUINEA



### Geopolitical summary

<b>Official name</b>	Independent State of Papua New Guinea
<b>Area</b>	178,656 mi <sup>2</sup> [462,840 km <sup>2</sup> ]
<b>Population</b>	3,689,038 (1990 census)
<b>Form of government</b>	Independent state within the Commonwealth. The head of state is the British sovereign, represented by a governor-general. The National Parliament is elected by universal suffrage every 4 years.
<b>Administrative structure</b>	20 provinces
<b>Capital</b>	Port Moresby (pop. 152,100; 1989 estimate)
<b>International relations</b>	Member of the UN, the Commonwealth, and SPF (South Pacific Forum)
<b>Official language</b>	English; Papuan and Melanesian languages are widespread.
<b>Religion</b>	Protestant, 58%; Catholic, 34%; remainder animist.
<b>Currency</b>	Kina

**Natural environment.** The island of New Guinea is subdivided into two political units separated by a border that runs along longitude 141° E of Greenwich. Irian Jaya, which is part of Indonesia, lies to the west of this line and the autonomous state of Papua New Guinea lies east of it. An independent entity within the British Commonwealth since 1975, Papua New Guinea also includes the Bismarck Archipelago (the largest islands of which are New Britain and New Ireland), the northwestern section of the Solomon Islands (including the islands of Bougainville and Buka), as well as the smaller archipelagoes of Louisiade and D'Entrecasteaux and the Trobriand (Kiriwina) Islands.

New Guinea is traversed longitudinally by an impressive mountain system that clearly divides the island into two parts. It



is made up of various sections the highest of which consists of the Maoke Mountains in Irian Jaya (Puncak Jaya 16 500 ft [5030 m] is the island's highest peak) Papua New Guinea contains the Central Range the Bismarck Mountains and the Owen Stanley Range the peaks of which exceed 13 000 ft [4000 m]. These mountain chains are Tertiary in origin and are made up of calcareous formations the base includes schists gneiss and other ancient rocks with striking granite intrusions. Both the Owen Stanley Range and the northern ranges have notable volcanic formations some of which are still active (volcanic activity also characterizes the archipelagoes and the smaller islands). North of the mountain chains is an interior depression beyond which a lesser mountainous strip rises parallel to the northern coast. The island's large southern plains extend south of the central mountains with marshy stretches furrowed by long water courses that flow toward the Coral Sea.

Due to the morphology of the land and the abundant and almost constant precipitation the region's hydrography is rich and complex. The principal river is the Fly (682 mi [1100 km] long) which flows past the island's southern slopes and is navigable for approximately 434 mi [700 km]. Along with the Kikori and the Purari it has formed extremely vast alluvial deposits. The three rivers flow into the Gulf of Papua in a series of estuaries. The Sepik navigable for 310 mi [500 km] and the Ramu empty into the Bismarck Sea.

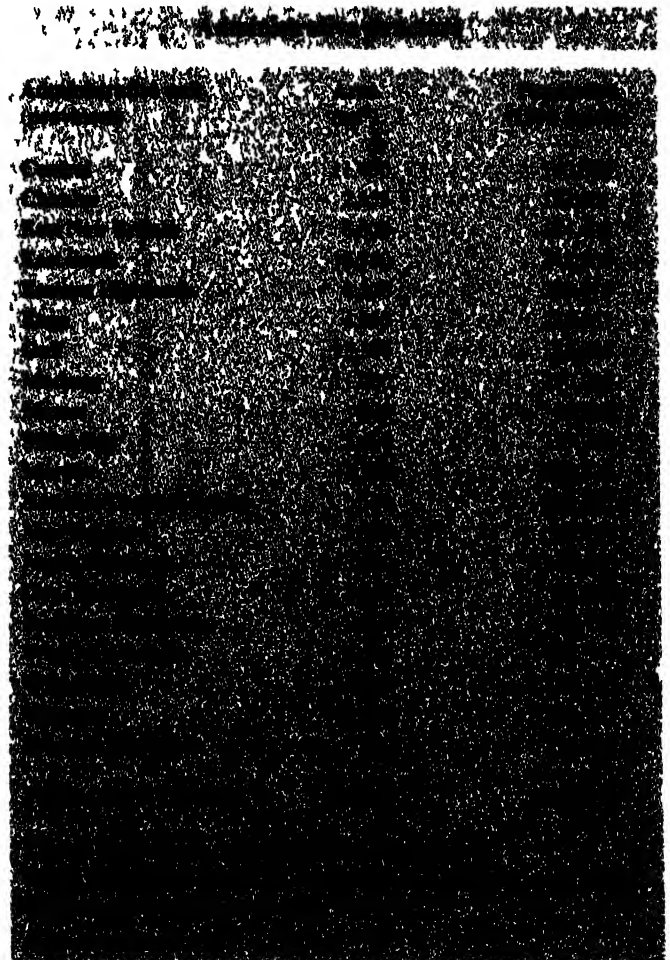
The climate is equatorial with slight seasonal fluctuations in temperature and with abundant precipitation. Temperatures vary with altitude the average temperature at sea level is about 82 °F [28 °C] while at elevations of 6500 ft [2000 m] it is approximately 61 °F [16 °C]. Rainfall is distributed throughout the year from May to November it is carried by the monsoons from the southeast from December to April by the northeasterly trade winds. Precipitation is particularly abundant (117–195 in [3000–5000 mm] annually) in the central part of the island lighter in the southeastern region.

The vegetation is extremely varied and diversified. Along the coasts there is a dense mangrove covering up to approximately 5000 ft [1500 m] the rainforest predominates in three layers (undergrowth high trunk trees epiphytes or air plants) between about 5000 and 10 000 ft [1500–3000 m] there is mountainous equatorial forest with oaks and southern beech and without any air plants. Above 10 000 ft [3000 m] there is conifer forest which ultimately gives way to mountain grasslands. In this type of environment the birdlife is particularly rich (birds of paradise parrots etc.). Wild boar are one of the more common mammals and the so-called 'black tree kangaroo' one of the region's marsupials.

**Population.** There are still some pygmoid groups living on the island in a few interior mountain regions. These were proba-

bly the region's most ancient inhabitants who were then joined by various other elements. Today 95% of the population is made up of Papuan and Melanesian groups, the former who have elongated skulls and woolly hair (characteristics similar to the Australian aborigines) live predominantly in the interior and in the mountains divided into hundreds of tribes (such as the Daudai the Gogala and the Kukukuku). The Melanesians, who have mesocephalic skulls and curly hair predominate along the coasts and on the smaller islands (tribes such as the Tolai the Motu and the Suau are generally skilled at navigation and fishing). The approximately 50 000 nonindigenous people are of European or Asian origin and arrived during the 20th century. The native populations practice animist religions and speak over 700 local tongues. English Tok Pisin (a Melanesian pidgin), and Hiri Motu are the official languages.

In 1990 the population of Papua New Guinea was about 3.7 million with a density of approximately 20 inhabitants per mi<sup>2</sup> [7.7 per km<sup>2</sup>]. Demographic growth traditionally slow due to endemic diseases and tribal warfare has lately experienced a sharp increase particularly in the recently urbanized coastal areas. From 1981–89 the annual growth rate was about 2.5%. The most populated regions are those along the northeastern coast (where the Ramu and Sepik plains are located) and some mountain areas where the climate is mitigated by the altitude (generally settlements do not occur at elevations above 6500 ft [2000 m]). The phenomenon of urbanization which dates back



only to the last twenty years, has taken place for the most part in the coastal areas, where some cities have developed, generally port centers that function as markets. There is still no real network of cities; the urban population represents about 16% of the total, and settlements with over 10,000 inhabitants are very rare. The country's major center is the capital, Port Moresby, founded in 1873 by the British. It is an active port, located on the Gulf of Papua facing the Coral Sea, in a position favorable to traffic with Australia. Lae and Madang are located on the northern coasts, while the main city in the Bismarck Archipelago is Rabaul on the island of New Britain.

**Economic summary.** Papua New Guinea's economy is still largely based on traditional forms of land utilization. Over two thirds of the economically active population is engaged in agriculture, which is organized according to rudimentary agrarian methods and is geared for family consumption. Nonetheless, with foreign financial assistance and investments (in particular from Australia, but also from Japan and the U.S.), the authorities are seeking to institute reforms and economic innovations. The wealth of some basic agrarian, forest, mineral, and hydroelectric resources supports prospects for future positive developments that will make it possible to lessen the large foreign debt contracted on international markets and begin on a path toward economic independence. In any case, despite difficulties connected to the necessity for foreign aid and to the close dependency on the international situation, the government's economic policy has allowed the country to achieve a satisfactory average living standard, higher than that of many developing countries.

Farmland and orchards occupy less than 1% of the country's area, woodlands and forests almost 83%. The remainder of the land is uncultivated and unproductive. The traditional mountain economy is based on the production of sweet potatoes, generally cultivated in an itinerant pattern. When the fertility of the soil in a given area is depleted, that area is abandoned and new land, often obtained and fertilized by burning the existing vegetation, is found to cultivate. Within this subsistence economy, peanuts, taro, and corn are also grown and pigs are raised. In the plains that extend along the coasts at the foot of the mountains, the traditional dietary staple is breadfruit; taro, bananas, yams, and bitter cassava are also cultivated. Attempts to modernize the agricultural sector have been based on the plantation system, now decreasingly controlled by foreign owners and managed by local entrepreneurs. The principal cash crops are cocoa (the country's primary agricultural export), coffee, tea, rubber, and coconut palm (which allows the export of a fair amount of copra). The forest resources are enormous, with numerous highly valued species of wood (Guinean pine is well known); in 1989 almost 300 million ft<sup>3</sup> [8.23 million m<sup>3</sup>] of timber were cut. There has been a notable increase in fishing, the catch being not only destined for local markets, but also exported (in this regard the harvesting of mother-of-pearl, conch, and tortoise are significant).

Mineral resources are particularly abundant, but have been only partially identified and barely exploited. Copper production is considerable (over 187,000 t in 1990), particularly on the island of Bougainville; prospecting and recent research have ascertained the presence of rich deposits of gold (already partially utilized), platinum, silver, nickel, iron, lead, and oil. Water

### Socioeconomic data

<b>Income (per capita, US\$)</b>	<b>900 (1990)</b>
<b>Population growth rate (% per year)</b>	<b>2.5 (1980-89)</b>
<b>Birth rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)</b>	<b>36 (1989)</b>
<b>Mortality rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)</b>	<b>11 (1989)</b>
<b>Life expectancy at birth (years)</b>	<b>54 (1989)</b>
<b>Urban population (% of total)</b>	<b>16 (1989)</b>
<b>Economically active population (% of total)</b>	<b>46.8 (1988)</b>
<b>Illiteracy (% of total population)</b>	<b>57.7 (1991)</b>
<b>Available nutrition (daily calories per capita)</b>	<b>2,236 (1991)</b>
<b>Energy consumption (10<sup>6</sup> tons coal equivalent)</b>	<b>1,154 (1987)</b>

resources are also plentiful, ensured by the presence of numerous abundant, steep-coursed rivers interrupted by waterfalls. Despite this potential, manufacturing is barely in evidence and is limited fundamentally to the processing of agricultural and forestry products.

Trade is based on the importation of foodstuffs, industrial goods, and fuels and on the exportation of copper, copra, coffee, and cocoa. The principal trading partners are Australia, Japan, the U.S., Germany, and Great Britain. For the development of economic activities and an efficient urban network it would be necessary to create an adequate transportation and communications system, a situation that is hardly favored by the region's morphology. There are no railroads, and in 1980 the highway network consisted of about 12,400 mi [20,000 km] of roads, only some of which are paved. Sea and river communications, however, are fairly well organized, and air transportation is increasing. Tourism is only in its initial stages, but there is interesting potential for "adventure trips."

**Historical and cultural profile.** Populated by early Australoid peoples, who some 40,000 years ago had probably already pushed out from Asia toward the Australian continent, New Guinea long remained unknown to Europeans. The region was a mosaic of small Papuan and Melanesian communities, with varied expressions of local culture and arts based on magic and religion. Spain took possession in purely formal fashion in 1528 and called the area New Guinea, convinced of a similarity between the native peoples and the Africans of the Gulf of Guinea. True colonization occurred over the course of the 19th century, with the partition of the island among the Dutch (who in the early decades of that century, had settled the western part of the island and claimed it as a possession in 1885), the Germans (the protectorate of Kaiser-Wilhelmsland, established in 1884 in the northeastern region), and the British (the protectorate of Papua, to the southeast). After World War I the two eastern protectorates came under Australian rule, and during World War II the island constituted an important strategic base for the Allies.

After World War II the island was definitively divided between the former Dutch zone, entrusted by the UN to administration by Indonesia (to which it became integrally connected in 1969, when it became known as Irian Jaya), and the eastern zone, which went from being an Australian mandate to autonomous rule in 1973 and independence in 1975. The island of Bougainville, the country's most economically advanced region, has manifested separatist tendencies.

## SOLOMON ISLANDS



## Geopolitical summary

<b>Official name</b>	Solomon Islands
<b>Area</b>	10,637 mi <sup>2</sup> [27,556 km <sup>2</sup> ]
<b>Population</b>	285,796 (1986 census); 318,707 (1990 estimate)
<b>Form of government</b>	Independent state within the Commonwealth. The head of state is the British sovereign, represented by a governor-general. The National Parliament is elected by universal suffrage every 4 years.
<b>Administrative structure</b>	7 provinces and the capital territory
<b>Capital</b>	Honiara (pop. 35,288; 1990 census)
<b>International relations</b>	Member of UN, Commonwealth, and SPF (South Pacific Forum)
<b>Official language</b>	English; Melanesian and Polynesian languages widespread.
<b>Religion</b>	Predominantly Protestant; Catholic (17%)
<b>Currency</b>	Solomon Islands dollar

**Natural environment.** The Solomon Islands, located in Melanesia in the Pacific Ocean, are made up of two island groups separated by a deep stretch of ocean: Choiseul, Santa Isabel, and New Georgia to the northwest, and Malaita, Guadalcanal, and San Cristobal to the southeast. Other islands and minor archipelagoes such as Santa Cruz, Duff, Tikopia, Fataka, Cherry, and the atoll of Ontong Java are included within this political unit of Oceania. The islands of Bougainville and Buka, which belong politically to Papua New Guinea, are also in the Solomon Islands archipelago.

The Solomons are of volcanic origin and largely mountainous. The highest elevation is Mt. Makarakombou (8028 ft [2447 m]) on Guadalcanal. There is still considerable volcanic activity, particularly in the central section; secondary volcanic phenomena

are widespread throughout the archipelago. Some of the islands are coral reefs, and of these, the Ontong Java atoll is one of the largest in the world.

Situated between the equator and the Tropic of Capricorn, the Solomon Islands are characterized by high temperatures (mitigated by ocean breezes) and abundant rainfall (a yearly average of over 117 in. [3000 mm]). Consequently the mountains are covered by an extremely dense rainforest.

**Population.** The population is predominantly Melanesian, with Micronesian and Polynesian minorities and more recent additions of Chinese and Europeans. Current demographic growth is particularly high, with an annual growth rate of 4%. The urban population is less than 11% of the total; the capital, Honiara, the only city of any importance, has just over 35,000 inhabitants. A pidgin English and various local dialects are widely spoken; English is the official language. Most people are Protestant, although some are Catholic or animist.

**Economic summary.** Until a short time ago the economy of the Solomon Islands was based almost exclusively on copra (extracted from the coconut palm, which is grown on a large scale) and on timber obtained from the extensive, luxuriant forests. However, recent years have seen considerable efforts to diversify the economy, taking better advantage of the country's significant natural resources. As a result, exports today include sweet potatoes (63,800 t in 1991), palm oil (24,750 t), cocoa (3300 t), and fish (62,700 t caught in 1989), as well as copra (38,500 t in 1991) and timber (49,390 t). Bananas, another crop, are important for domestic use.

Australian and Japanese mining companies have uncovered

**Socioeconomic data**

Income (per capita, US\$)	580 (1990)
Population growth rate (% per year)	4.0 (1980-89)
Birth rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)	41 (1989)
Mortality rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)	5 (1989)
Life expectancy at birth (years)	64 (1989)
Urban population (% of total)	10.4 (1989)
Economically active population (% of total)	24.8 (1985)
Illiteracy (% of total population)	45.9 (1991)
Available nutrition (daily calories per capita)	2,120 (1989)
Energy consumption (10 <sup>6</sup> tons coal equivalent)	64 (1987)

deposits of gold, copper, silver, bauxite, and phosphates. Future exploitation of these resources, and more generally the entry of the Solomon Islands into the international market (trade is now restricted to relationships with Australia and Japan), will also depend on the development of transportation facilities, currently limited to a modest network of roads and to a more substantial maritime transport system.

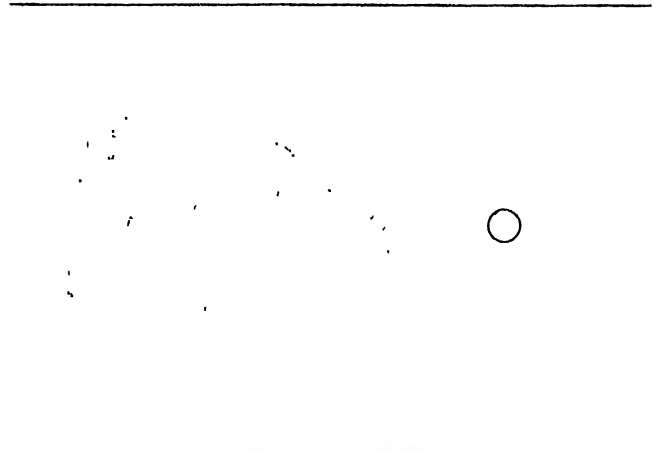
**Historical and cultural profile.** The Solomon archipelago, which was discovered by the Spaniard Alvaro de Mendaña de Neira in 1568, was "rediscovered" after two centuries of oblivion by the Frenchman Louis Antoine de Bougainville. During the 19th century two protectorates were established: by Germany on the northern islands, and by Great Britain on the southern ones. The latter ended up encompassing almost the entire archipelago as a result of diplomatic treaties between the two powers.

During World War II the islands were occupied by the Japanese and became the scene of bloody air, sea, and land battles that were crucial to the outcome of the war in the Pacific. U.S. forces landed on Guadalcanal in 1942 and the Japanese evacuated the archipelago in 1943.

In 1960 a legislative and an executive council were established and in 1978 the Solomon Islands became an independent state under the leadership of Prime Minister Peter Kenilorea.

In December 1986 the Legislative Assembly elected Prime Minister Ezekiel Alebua of the United Party (UP) to succeed Kenilorea (of the same party), who was forced to step down due to irregularities in the distribution of foreign aid received from France. In 1989 the People's Alliance Party (PAP) won control of the Parliament, and consequently, its leader, Solomon Mamaloni, who had been Prime Minister once before (1981-84), replaced Alebua. In 1993 a general election was held, which Mamaloni lost by a narrow margin to Francis Billy Hilly.

Both ethnic differences and the enormous longitudinal extension of the islands have impeded the formation of a homogeneous culture. As a result, the indigenous arts are rather diverse: objects of everyday use, often painted and carved, are of particular interest, being noted for their formal elegance. Traditional crafts characteristically include the use of shell inlay. Some of the most unusual objects include rituals bowls up to 3 ft [2 m] high in the form of a huge bird holding a fish in its beak, and large wooden sharks with hollow bodies, made to hold the skulls of deceased leaders.

**WESTERN SAMOA****Geopolitical summary**

<b>Official name</b>	Independent State of Western Samoa; Malo Su'oloto Tuto'atasi o Samoa i Sisifo
<b>Area</b>	1,093 mi <sup>2</sup> [2,831 km <sup>2</sup> ]
<b>Population</b>	157,158 (1986 census); 163,000 (1993 estimate)
<b>Form of government</b>	Independent state within the Commonwealth. The present head of state and of the executive branch will hold office for life; future heads of state will be elected every 5 years. The Legislative Assembly is elected by partial suffrage every 3 years.
<b>Administrative structure</b>	2 large islands and 21 districts
<b>Capital</b>	Apia (pop. 35,000; 1983 estimate)
<b>International relations</b>	Member of the UN, Commonwealth, and SPF (South Pacific Forum); associated with the EC.
<b>Official language</b>	Samoaan; English
<b>Religion</b>	Protestant majority; Catholic (21%)
<b>Currency</b>	Tala

**Natural environment.** The Independent State of Western Samoa includes the two main islands of Savai'i and Upolu, the smaller islands of Apolima and Manono, and five small uninhabited islands. This is the western part of the Samoan archipelago, the eastern portion of which is an unincorporated territory of the United States. Western Samoa is located between latitudes 13° and 15° S and between longitudes 168° and 173° W.

The territory of Savai'i is dominated by a large basalt cone (Mt. Silisili, 6091 ft [1857 m]), the slopes of which are dotted by some fifty smaller volcanic craters (currently inactive) and marked by abundant recent lava flows (the last major eruption was in 1905). As a result, the urban settlements have grown up along the coast. Upolu, home to 75% of the population, has older



## Socioeconomic data

Income (per capita, US\$)	730 (1990)
Population growth rate (% per year)	0.8 (1980-89)
Birth rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)	34 (1989)
Mortality rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)	7 (1989)
Life expectancy at birth (years)	66 (1989)
Urban population (% of total)	21.2 (1989)
Economically active population (% of total)	-
Illiteracy (% of total population)	50.6 (1991)
Available nutrition (daily calories per capita)	2,474 (1989)
Energy consumption (10 <sup>6</sup> tons coal equivalent)	57 (1987)

volcanic origins, is richer in vegetation (in the north), and has picturesque lagoons. Its highest peak is Mt. Fito (3608 ft [1100 m]). The smooth, harborless coasts are often bordered by coral reefs, particularly in the Apolima Strait (which separates the two large islands) and north of Upolu.

The climate is typically equatorial, with average annual temperatures of about 79°F [26°C] and particularly abundant rainfall during the summer. The vegetation is lush and typically tropical.

**Population and economy.** The population is made up predominantly of Samoans, an indigenous group of Polynesian origin, with only a small number of Europeans and Asians. The Samoans experienced a sharp demographic decline at the end of the 18th century following the arrival of European settlers, then recovered, and finally stabilized at the current annual growth rate of 0.8%. Today, the population is primarily rural with an urban population of just over 21% concentrated in Apia, the capital, a European-style commercial center founded at the time of German colonization and the site of an important geophysics observatory.

The economy is based chiefly on agriculture, with moderate cocoa, copra, and banana crops. The raising of pigs and cows and the exploitation of forest and fishing resources also contribute to the economy. The industrial sector is only in its beginning stages and is for the most part based on traditional crafts; as of yet, no mineral resources have been discovered on the islands. Consequently, Samoans must import all types of manufactured goods, and the country has a large trade deficit. Transportation is based on a network of about 62 mi [100 km] of roads, only some of which are paved, and on a small number of shipping lines and airlines. While there is some tourism, it is not particularly developed, with the result that the Samoan islands are among the most unspoiled in this part of the Pacific.

**Historical and cultural profile.** The Polynesian peoples who settled the Samoan islands as early as 1000 B.C. had achieved a notable level of development before the arrival of Europeans. These people lived by fishing and cultivating taro and yams, thanks in part to intensive irrigation. Throughout the 18th century the islands were visited by European navigators, beginning with the Dutchman Jacob Roggeveen in 1722.

In 1891 the famous English writer Robert Louis Stevenson moved permanently to Upolu, where he led an extremely tranquil and productive life, respected and loved by the native Samoans. When Folco Quilici visited the island he paid his respects at Stevenson's grave:

*... December 3, 1894, the drums announced: "Tusitala is dead." Tusitala ["teller of tales" - Ed.] was the Polynesian name for the English writer Robert Louis Stevenson. He had been called this by the local chiefs, who knew how much Stevenson had wanted to rest in eternity on that wild mountain - never climbed by humans - on the slopes of which he had lived out the last two years of his life. Tusitala was a great friend; for him, they moved rocks, uprooted trees, and cut the dense tropical underbrush to prepare a path up to the summit, so that he could be buried where he had wanted.*

*On the green-covered peak, Stevenson's tomb is a rough cement slab, partially covered by shrubbery, beyond which one can glimpse the horizon from which there rises the roar of the ocean wave against the coral reef.*

*"Under the wide and starry sky / Dig the grave and let me lie. / Glad did I live and gladly die. / And I laid me down with a will. / This be the verse you grave for me: / 'Here he lies where he longed to be; / Home is the sailor, home from the sea, / And the hunter home from the hills.'"*

*This is what is written on Stevenson's grave, in English and in Samoan - the final phrase in the story of a life begun facing another horizon, that of the leaden North Sea of Scotland where Stevenson was born. A long road had brought this man to die in a land so distant from where he was born; a life of marvelous events, the dramatic end of which would contribute decisively to the creation of the "myth of the South Seas," the romantic claim that still weighs on the reality of the Pacific.*

The islands were the subject of disputes between the European powers until 1889, when Great Britain, Germany, and the U.S. agreed upon a sort of "tripartite protectorate" over the archipelago, which, with the withdrawal of the British ten years later, was transformed into a codominion arrangement. The U.S. oversaw the eastern islands, which are still under its guardianship, while the western islands remained under German colonial rule until World War I. In 1920 the League of Nations granted New Zealand a mandate over the western islands, a relationship that was changed to a UN trust territory in 1947. In 1962 Western Samoa became the first archipelago in Oceania to become an independent state; it has been a member of the Commonwealth since 1970 and of the UN since 1976.

## TONGA



## Geopolitical summary

<b>Official name</b>	Pule'anga Fakatu'i 'o Tonga (Kingdom of Tonga)
<b>Area</b>	289 mi <sup>2</sup> [748 km <sup>2</sup> ]
<b>Population</b>	96,300 (1990 estimate)
<b>Form of government</b>	Independent constitutional monarchy within the Commonwealth. The Legislative Assembly is elected by partial suffrage every 3 years.
<b>Administrative structure</b>	5 divisions
<b>Capital</b>	Nuku'alofa (pop. 21,383; 1986 census)
<b>International relations</b>	Member of the Commonwealth and SPF (South Pacific Forum); associated with the EC.
<b>Official language</b>	English and Tongan
<b>Religion</b>	Protestant majority; Catholic 15%
<b>Currency</b>	Paanga

**Natural environment.** The Tonga Islands (Friendly Islands) consist of 150 islands and islets east of Fiji and south of Samoa and scattered between latitudes 15° and 25° S and longitudes 173° and 176° W of Greenwich.

The Tonga Islands are arranged in two nearly parallel groupings that run from northeast to southwest. The western, almost uninhabited group is volcanic in origin and mountainous, culminating in Kao, a 3,378-ft [1,030-m] active volcano. The eastern group of islands is calcareous and includes three distinct archipelagoes: the Vava'u islands in the north, the Ha'apai in the center, and the Tongatapu in the south. The island of Tongatapu occupies half the overall territory.

The archipelago has a tropical climate, mitigated by the sea and the dominant trade winds. There are two distinct seasons, one hot and oppressive, from December to April; the other, from May to November, is milder and characterized by rather marked

diurnal temperature fluctuations. Average temperatures are about 75°F [24°C]. Rainfall is not abundant since the modest altitudes are not sufficient for the humidity carried by the trade winds to be condensed. Cyclones are frequent and often cause extremely serious damage. Most of the vegetation consists of commercially useful trees, such as coconut and banana palms.

**Population.** The present-day population, made up of Polynesians, is still the original ethnic stock. In fact, unlike the other Pacific archipelagoes, Tonga has not experienced any recent migrations to or from its islands, which cover an overall area of 289 mi<sup>2</sup> [748 km<sup>2</sup>] and are inhabited by over 96,000 people, with a density of about 334 people per mi<sup>2</sup> [129 per km<sup>2</sup>]. Demographic growth is rather high, with an annual growth rate of 5%. Over half the inhabitants live in the Tongatapu and Vava'u islands. Nuku'alofa, the country's capital and only sizable urban center is located in the former group. The official languages are English and Tongan; most of the population is Protestant.

**Economic summary.** High demographic growth and scarcity of land in an agricultural economy led to a high level of temporary emigration to New Zealand (which is no longer feasible) and to chronic unemployment. This crisis pushed the government to open new economic possibilities through both state-controlled tourism, aided by Japanese capital, and a strong increase in fishing.

Nevertheless the economy is still almost exclusively agricultural. The principal export products are copra (1100 t in 1991), bananas (1100 t), coconuts, and vanilla. Cassava (16,500 t) and sweet potatoes are grown for domestic consumption. There is practically no livestock. Fishing supplies an important part of the local diet (2946 t caught in 1988) and takes advantage of the deep waters, but relies mostly on rudimentary means.

Industrial development is only in its initial stages, but infra-



Socioeconomic data

Income (per capita, US\$)	1,100 (1990)
Population growth rate (% per year)	5.2 (1980-89)
Birth rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)	27 (1989)
Mortality rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)	5 (1989)
Life expectancy at birth (years)	67 (1989)
Urban population (% of total)	20.3 (1989)
Economically active population (% of total)	-
Illiteracy (% of total population)	4 (1991)
Available nutrition (daily calories per capita)	2,964 (1989)
Energy consumption (10 <sup>6</sup> tons coal equivalent)	32 (1987)

structures for tourism are being encouraged. Artisanal crafts are widespread and include thin woven fabrics and "tapa" (a cloth of beaten bark), plaited mats and baskets, as well as wood and metal ornaments. There is a trade deficit, and the country depends heavily on financial aid from abroad (particularly from the Commonwealth nations and from the European Community).

Communications among the various islands is rather difficult. The main airport is located on the island of Tongatapu; the chief port is Nuku'alofa.

**Historical and cultural profile.** The Tonga islands were populated by successive waves of migrating peoples who probably came from the islands of southeast Asia. Sometime around the second millennium B.C., these groups arrived at a common center in Polynesia, from where they spread out to the various archipelagoes during the 10-15th centuries.

The archipelago was discovered by the Dutch navigators Jakob Le Maire and Wilhelm Corneliszoon Schouten in 1616. In 1773 James Cook spent several months there and was very well received by the indigenous people, which is why he gave the islands the name "Friendly."

In the early 18th century the Tongan islands were organized into a feudal-type state, with an absolute sovereign and assemblies of nobles and commoners. The end of that century saw revolts and disorders that continued for decades. In 1822 the Protestant evangelization of the islands began. This period also marked the ascent of a sovereign who unified the three traditional dynasties of the archipelago and became a Methodist. In 1845 he took the royal title of King George Tupou I, a sign of his pro-British sympathies.

During the 19th century the archipelago, which was considered neutral territory, avoided European occupation. In 1900, in order to prevent any attempt at annexation by Germany, which was then occupying nearby Samoa, Tonga requested and obtained British protection. The treaty with Great Britain was revised in 1958 and 1967, with a gradual increase in powers granted to local authorities.

In 1970 the Tongan Islands acquired national sovereignty within the Commonwealth. A constitutional monarchy was established, and the elections of 1981 gave a majority to the conservatives within the Legislative Assembly. One of the islands' most delicate problems in recent years has been the protests against French nuclear experiments in the Pacific.

TUVALU



Geopolitical summary

Official name	Tuvalu
Area	9 mi <sup>2</sup> [24 km <sup>2</sup> ]
Population	9,100 (1990 estimate)
Form of government	Independent state within the Commonwealth; head of state is the British sovereign, represented by a governor-general. Members of Parliament are also members of island councils
Administrative structure	An urban council (on Funafuti) and 8 island councils
Capital	Fongafale (pop. 3,432, 1985 estimate)
International relations	Member of Commonwealth and SPF (South Pacific Forum); associated with the EC.
Official language	English and Tuvaluan
Religion	Predominantly Protestant
Currency	Australian dollar

**Natural environment.** The Tuvalu Islands are a small archipelago made up of a group of atolls in equatorial Micronesia, east of the Solomon Islands and south of the Gilberts. The islands are rather low in elevation, rising only a few feet above sea level. The soil is not very fertile, with scarce vegetation that consists essentially of coconut palms and pandanus.

The climate is equatorial, with high temperatures that are mitigated by the presence of trade winds. Precipitation is abundant, generally more than 79 in. [2000 mm] annually, occasionally reaching as much as 138 in. [3500 mm].

**Population and economy.** The Polynesian population speaks Tuvaluan and English and is predominantly Protestant. Settlements consist for the most part of villages with huts or wooden houses; the principal center is the capital, Fongafale (pop. 3,432 in 1990), located on Funafuti Atoll.

The traditional economy is based on subsistence agriculture. Arable land is scarce and the soil poor, and the only important crop is copra, the production of which has increased greatly in recent years. Fishing, important as a source of food for the local population, is currently pursued with somewhat rudimentary methods, but prospects for development are good.

Financial assistance from the United Kingdom, the former colonial power, is absolutely essential to the Tuvaluan economy and has been provided since the island group gained independence. Considerable aid also comes from New Zealand and Australia, as well as from European bodies and the UN.

There are few air and sea links to the outside world. A sea-plane service operates between some of the islands.

**Historical and cultural profile.** Until a few years ago, the Tuvalu group was known as the Ellice Islands. Regular contacts with Europeans began only at the beginning of the 19th century. Between 1850 and 1875 many of the indigenous people were deported as slaves. In 1892 the islands, along with the nearby Gilberts, were declared an English protectorate and were annexed as a colony in 1916, with the shared name of the Gilbert and Ellice Islands Colony.

In the early 1970s a process began that would lead to the self-government of the islands. On the basis of ethnic differences, the Polynesian inhabitants of the Ellice Islands chose in a 1974 referendum to separate from the Gilberts, which are inhabited by Micronesians.

The Ellice group achieved independence on October 1, 1978, and took the name Tuvalu. The Gilbert Islands did likewise the following year, adopting the name Kiribati.

#### \* Socioeconomic data

Income (per capita, US\$)	1,200 (1990)
Population growth rate (% per year)	1.2 (1980-89)
Birth rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)	27 (1989)
Mortality rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)	10 (1989)
Life expectancy at birth (years)	61.5 (1989)
Urban population (% of total)	31.2 (1989)
Economically active population (% of total)	-
Illiteracy (% of total population)	4.5 (1991)
Available nutrition (daily calories per capita)	-
Energy consumption (10 <sup>6</sup> tons coal equivalent)	-

## VANUATU



### Geopolitical summary

<b>Official name</b>	Republic of Vanuatu
<b>Area</b>	4707 mi <sup>2</sup> [12,190 km <sup>2</sup> ]
<b>Population</b>	142,944 (1989 census)
<b>Form of government</b>	Independent republic within the Commonwealth. The single-house Parliament is elected every 4 years; the President every 5 years.
<b>Administrative structure</b>	11 regions
<b>Capital</b>	Vila (pop. 19,400; 1989 estimate)
<b>International relations</b>	Member of UN and Commonwealth; associated with the EC
<b>Official language</b>	English, French, and Bislama (an English pidgin); other Melanesian languages widespread
<b>Religion</b>	Christian (80%); animism quite widespread
<b>Currency</b>	Vatu

**Natural environment.** The New Hebrides archipelago, formerly under joint English-French rule, became an independent republic within the Commonwealth in 1980 and is now known as Vanuatu. The country includes the New Hebrides (with the principal islands of Espiritu Santo, Maéwo, Pentecost, Éfaté, and Tanna) and two other island groups, the Torres and Banks Islands. Occupying a region roughly between 13° and 21° S latitude, it is made up of some forty islands, with an overall area of 4707 mi<sup>2</sup> [12,190 km<sup>2</sup>]. The archipelago is formed mostly of volcanic or sedimentary rocks from the Tertiary and Quaternary periods and is still characterized by volcanic activity, with frequent active phases and destructive eruptions (like the 1951 eruption of Mt. Benbow, on the island of Ambrym, which forced the population to flee and move elsewhere). There is also fre-



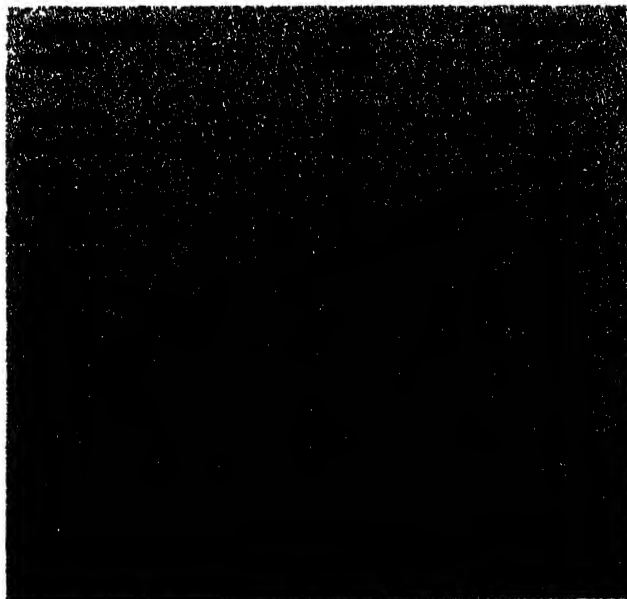
quent seismic activity. The climate is maritime tropical, hot and humid. The vegetation consists of dense impenetrable rainforest.

**Population.** Indigenous Melanesians make up the largest part of the population, but there are also Asian and European minorities. After considerable demographic decreases from the time of the European arrival until 1920 (due to the spread of new diseases and the removal of indentured local workers to the sugar cane plantations of Queensland), there has been a notable increase, and the annual growth rate is now 3.3%.

The national language is Bislama, an English pidgin; English and French are also official languages. Animist cults predominate. The urban population is about 29% of the total; the principal city is Vila, on the island of Efate.

**Economic summary.** The most important sector is agriculture; in fact, over 80% of the population lives in rural areas and an analogous percentage of the economically active population is involved in agriculture. The principal crops are coconut palms (322,300 t of coconuts and 308,000 t of copra in 1991), coffee, and cocoa (2,200 t). Forest resources are considerable (2,224,000 ft<sup>3</sup> [63,000 m<sup>3</sup>] of round timber harvested in 1991); livestock raising, particularly of cattle, is moderately important, and 3674 t of fish were caught in 1989.

The country's major mineral resource, manganese, is in the process of being depleted. The manufacturing industry is in an early stage, while tourism is quite developed. There is a severe trade deficit, since the country must import almost everything



### Socioeconomic data

Income (per capita, US\$)	1,640 (1990)
Population growth rate (% per year)	3.3 (1980-89)
Birth rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)	33 (1990)
Mortality rate (annual, per 1,000 pop.)	4 (1990)
Life expectancy at birth (years)	69 (1989)
Urban population (% of total)	29 (1989)
Economically active population (% of total)	-
Illiteracy (% of total population)	47.1 (1991)
Available nutrition (daily calories per capita)	2,533 (1989)
Energy consumption (10 <sup>6</sup> tons coal equivalent)	25 (1987)

(capital and consumer goods). Copra, timber, fish, and manganese are exported. Sea routes provide the major link to the outside world, and the principal trading partners are Australia, Japan, the U.S., France, and Great Britain.

**Historical and cultural profile.** These islands were populated by successive waves of Melanesians, Papuans, and Polynesians, who created some of the most original art forms in all of Oceania (reshaped skulls, statues carved out of trunks of treelike ferns, masks made from bark). Captain James Cook, who landed there in 1774, named the islands the New Hebrides. In 1878 France and England pledged to respect the islands' independence, but in 1884 France, under pressure to protect the interests of French planters in the region, placed the islands under the control of the governor of New Caledonia.

The occupation of two of the islands, to quell disorders there, led to intervention by the English. After long negotiations, the governments in London and Paris signed a treaty on November 16, 1887, which marked the beginning of joint Anglo-French administration of the New Hebrides, with a condominium government being established in 1906. The agreement proved to be rather fragile, however, and on October 20, 1914, France and Great Britain drew up a new treaty, replaced by a protocol that same year, which was ratified in 1922. During World War II the islands were one of the most important Allied bases in the Pacific war against Japan.

In 1972 the pro-British National Party was established (later called the Vanuaaku Party), which, two years later, opposed the Union of the New Hebrides Communities, a pro-French entity. The elections of November 1975 marked the victory of the Vanuaaku Party, which won once again in the elections of November 1979. Father Walter Lini, leader of the party, was elected prime minister.

Independence was proclaimed on July 30, 1980; the following year the new Republic of Vanuatu joined the UN. In 1987 the Vanuaaku Party won elections in the Legislative Assembly, despite a notable decrease in voting, and Lini was again named prime minister. The 1991 elections, however, were won by the Union of Moderate Parties led by Maxine Carlot Korman.

Vanuatu culture is known for its memorial statues, large-scale figures carved from the trunks of tree ferns, and for masks made out of wood, clay, and various other materials. Pictorial art, a less significant form of creative expression on the islands, adorns the facades of ritual houses. Mostly geometric motifs are used in the decoration of furnishings.

## POSSESSIONS

The first Europeans to set foot on the Pacific islands were members of Ferdinand Magellan's historic expedition who landed on the island of Guam in the Marianas on March 6, 1521. It was not until somewhat later that the major European powers became interested in the archipelagoes of Oceania, which were frequented by traders, whalers, missionaries, and adventurers.

Spain, which had a permanent settlement on Guam, located along the sea routes linking Mexico and the Philippines, turned its attention principally to Micronesia (the Marquesas and Caroline Islands), while Great Britain, particularly after James Cook's voyages, focused on New Zealand and other Polynesian islands. France also took an interest in Polynesia, encouraged by detailed reports of the voyages of Jules Dumont d'Urville and Louis-Antoine de Bougainville. Other European countries came later; western New Guinea was occupied by Holland (1828), the northeastern part of the island by Germany (1884). It was not until 1898 that the U.S., as a consequence of the Spanish-American War, took control of large areas of the Pacific, from the Philippines to Hawaii, including the important base of Guam.

Actual partition of the Pacific among the European powers took place at the end of the 19th century, simultaneously with their division of Africa. Germany, which already ruled the Marshalls (1878) and Nauru (1888) as protectorates, purchased the Carolines and the rest of the Marianas from Spain (1899) and agreed with the U.S. to partition the Samoan islands (1900). The outcome of both world wars changed the political framework of European possessions in the Pacific. In 1914 the German presence was completely eliminated and the Japanese, who had replaced the Germans in Micronesia, were gone after 1945.

After World War II nearly all the former British colonies and protectorates gradually became independent, while France transformed its possessions into Overseas Territories. The U.S., charged by the UN with the trusteeship of the Marshall and Caroline archipelagoes, led these islands toward autonomy and then independence (1990), maintaining direct control only over Hawaii, which had become the 50th state (1959), the Northern Marianas, part of Samoa, and some other minor islands.

Today other Pacific islands are directly ruled by Australia (Norfolk, the Coral Sea Islands, and Macquarie), by New

Zealand (Cook, Niue, and Tokelau), and by some Latin American countries (Chile, Ecuador, Colombia, Costa Rica, and Mexico). Japan regained sovereignty over some archipelagoes and islands to its southeast (Bonin, Volcano, Daito, Parece, Vela, and Marcus).

Overall, the territories still dependent on European nations (France and the United Kingdom) cover an area of over 8878 mi<sup>2</sup> [23,000 km<sup>2</sup>] including interior lagoons, with a population of approximately 385,000. Excluding territories that are now part of formally independent states (such as Hawaii, Irian Jaya, the Bismarcks, Lord Howe and Easter islands, etc.), the possessions of countries bordering the Pacific (United States, Australia, and New Zealand) extend over more than 772 mi<sup>2</sup> [2000 km<sup>2</sup>] and have about 250,000 inhabitants. Like the other Pacific island territories, these too are almost all volcanic in origin, edged by coral reefs that often outline wide interior lagoons. The volcanic nature of the region is the result of numerous fractures to the Pacific undersea ridges, and eruptive activity is frequent and considerable. Only New Caledonia, structurally connected to the mountains of New Zealand and New Guinea, has sedimentary and crystalline formations caused by Cenozoic folding.

The climate is predominantly tropical and humid, with abundant, steady rainfall throughout most of the year, generally regulated by the trade winds. Average annual precipitation usually exceeds 78 in. [2000 mm], and is even double that in some areas. Where the vegetation has not been modified by human intervention, it consists of tropical evergreen forests with an abundance of palms, particularly the coconut variety, as well as fruit and hardwood trees. Mangroves are common along the coasts. Wildlife is significant (particularly birds and insects, as well as marine life), although the introduction of domestic species by Europeans has resulted in many modifications.

### AUSTRALIAN POSSESSIONS IN OCEANIA

Directly ruled by Australia, the island of Norfolk is located between New Caledonia and New Zealand. Some 2000 people inhabit an area of 14 mi<sup>2</sup> [36 km<sup>2</sup>], where they cultivate grains, citrus fruits, bananas, and vegetables. Tourism is growing.

Discovered by James Cook on October 10, 1774, Norfolk Island was set aside by the British government as a penal colony from 1778–1813 and again from 1825–55.

A separate colony until 1897, it then became part of the Australian region of New South Wales; in 1913 control was transferred to the Australian central government. In 1979 the island obtained self-rule for the management of its internal affairs, with an executive council at the disposal of an administrator who is appointed by the governor-general of Australia.

Macquarie Island (68 mi<sup>2</sup> [176 km<sup>2</sup>]) is located about 930 mi [1500 km] southeast of Tasmania and is under its direct administration. It is the site of a scientific observatory.

### BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN OCEANIA

The island of Pitcairn (1.8 mi<sup>2</sup> [4.6 km<sup>2</sup>], with a population of 52 in 1991) and its outer islands, Ducie, Oeno, and Henderson (annexed in 1902) constitute the only British colonial possession

in the Pacific; they are located southeast of Gambier, along the sea route to Easter Island. Discovered in 1767 by Philip Carteret and occupied in 1790 by the mutineers of the *Bounty*, it became a British colony in 1839 and is administered by a High Commissioner who lives in Wellington, New Zealand. The capital is Adamstown. Almost all essential goods are imported.

### CHILEAN POSSESSIONS IN OCEANIA

Chile has two possessions in Oceania. Easter Island (62.7 mi<sup>2</sup> [162.5 km<sup>2</sup>], pop. 2095 in 1989) and Sala y Gómez (0.05 mi<sup>2</sup> [0.12 km<sup>2</sup>], uninhabited). The name of the former island derives from its discovery by Jacob Roggeveen on Easter Day in 1772; it is grouped with the mainland region of Valparaíso. Made up of ancient extinct volcanos, it has average daytime temperatures of approximately 68°F [20°C].

The population, originally Polynesian but now an amalgam of Europeans, Chileans, and Polynesians, is engaged in stock raising (sheep and pigs), farming (corn, sweet potatoes, and fruit), and fishing (tuna, conger eel, and lobster). Tourism provides a good source of revenue, with many people coming to see the famous *moa*, the over 300 gigantic statues (7–33 ft [2–10 m] high, in dense trachyte) scattered throughout the territory, depicting human figures without legs, hands resting on their stomachs, usually erected on special altar-platforms (*ahu*).

### FRENCH POSSESSIONS IN OCEANIA

France is the only European power that has kept numerous and important territories in the South Pacific under its control. These Overseas Territories are represented by their own deputies to the French parliament. Overall, they cover an area of more than 8878 mi<sup>2</sup> [23,000 km<sup>2</sup>] and have a population of about 380,000 inhabitants.

**New Caledonia.** Discovered by Louis-Antoine de Bougainville in 1768, New Caledonia lies about 1050 mi [1700 km] northwest of New Zealand and 930 mi [1500 km] east of Australia. The territory, which includes numerous islands, extends over an area of 7356 mi<sup>2</sup> [19,058 km<sup>2</sup>] and has 164,173 inhabitants (1989). Most of its land area consists of a single large island, New Caledonia (6466 mi<sup>2</sup> [16,750 km<sup>2</sup>]), that extends in a northwest-southeast direction for about 250 mi [400 km]. Completely mountainous, its peaks often exceed elevations of 3300 ft [1000 m], culminating in Mont Panié (5340 ft [1628 m]). Its rather jagged coasts are fringed by coral reefs. In geological terms, the island is made up predominantly of sedimentary rocks creased and partially metamorphosed by Cenozoic folding. The southern portion has basic crystalline outcroppings of the peridotite type, these too positioned by Cenozoic folding, along with other crystalline rocks (gabbro, granodiorite, etc.) rich in metal ores such as nickel, chromium, iron, cobalt, copper, manganese, gold, tungsten, molybdenum, and mercury. The southern Isle of Pines is made up of peridotite rocks, while the nearby Loyalty Islands are formed from organogenic (coral reef) layers that partially cover volcanic (basaltic) rocks, as on Maré Island.

The climate is tropical, tempered by ocean breezes and the

trade winds, but marked by violent cyclones during the hot, rainy season (January–March). The leeward western islands receive less precipitation (about 39 in. [1000 mm] annually) and have more stable temperatures. In Koumac and Nouméa average monthly temperatures range from 79°F [26°C] in January to 68°F [20°C] in July, while on Lifou in the Loyalty Islands temperatures are slightly lower and annual rainfall exceeds 62 in. [1600 mm].

The coastal and lower areas of New Caledonia are blanketed by typical tropical vegetation, with evergreen forests (coconut palms, euphorbium, casuarina trees, ferns, and the like), that thin out in the highest regions and along the western slopes, where they are replaced by dry undergrowth and savanna with various species of araucaria trees. New Caledonia is also rich in endemic plant species, noteworthy among which is the highly fire-resistant niaouli (genus *Melaleuca*). Wildlife is scarce and has been greatly changed since the introduction of non-native species by Europeans, but the marine life is rich and varied, encouraged by the presence of a coral reef enclosure over 500 mi [800 km] long.

The ethnic composition is 45% Melanesian (Kanak) and 34% European. The remainder consists of immigrants from Indonesia and from other French islands in the Pacific (Wallis and Tahiti).

The economy is based principally on mining (New Caledonia is the world's fourth largest producer of nickel, with about 66,000 t mined annually, some of which is used to supply the local metallurgy industry and the rest exported), followed by stock raising (cattle, goats, and pigs) and agriculture (coconuts, corn, sweet potatoes, and manioc). Fishing activity is negligible, while the forests, reduced to barely 10% of the island's area, provide prized species such as sandalwood and niaouli.

The main air and naval base is located in Nouméa (approximately 65,000 inhabitants) capital of the territory, which is divided administratively into three provinces. In addition to the island of New Caledonia, the territory of New Caledonia includes the Isle of Pines (59 mi<sup>2</sup> [152 km<sup>2</sup>], pop. 1465) to the southeast, the Bélep coral archipelago (27 mi<sup>2</sup> [70 km<sup>2</sup>], pop. 745) to the northwest, and the Loyalty Islands (Maré, Lifou, and Ouvéa), located 62 mi [100 km] east of New Caledonia (765 mi<sup>2</sup> [1981 km<sup>2</sup>], pop. 17,912 overall). There are also some lesser, mostly uninhabited islands: the Chesterfields (4 mi<sup>2</sup> [10 km<sup>2</sup>]), located 341 mi [550 km] west of Bélep; the Huon islands (161 acres [65 ha]), 140 mi [225 km] north of Bélep; and Walpole (4 mi<sup>2</sup> [1 km<sup>2</sup>]), Matthew (49 acres [20 ha]), and Hunter (8 mi<sup>2</sup> [2 km<sup>2</sup>]), respectively 93, 250, and 300 mi [150, 400, and 480 km] east of the Isle of Pines. The latter two, which experience frequent and intense volcanic activity, have been claimed by Vanuatu. In 1998 a referendum on self-rule is scheduled for the territory of New Caledonia.

**French Polynesia.** This territory, held by France since 1843, includes various archipelagoes located between latitudes 7° and 28° S, with an overall area of about 1550 mi<sup>2</sup> [4000 km<sup>2</sup>] including interior lagoons and a population of about 188,814 (1988 census).

The official languages are French and Tahitian; the capital, Papeete (pop. 23,555), is on the island of Tahiti. French Polynesia is divided into five administrative districts: the Windward Islands (453 mi<sup>2</sup> [1173 km<sup>2</sup>], pop. 140,341 in 1988), with Tahiti (402 mi<sup>2</sup> [1042 km<sup>2</sup>], pop. about 115,000), Moorea (51 mi<sup>2</sup> [132 km<sup>2</sup>], pop.

about 7000), Maio (3 mi<sup>2</sup> [9 km<sup>2</sup>], pop. about 200), and the small islands of Mehetia and Tetiarou; the Leeward Islands (183 mi<sup>2</sup> [474 km<sup>2</sup>], pop. 22,232), with Raiat  a, Tahaa, Huahin  , Bora Bora, and Maupiti; the Tuamotu archipelago (266 mi<sup>2</sup> [690 km<sup>2</sup>], pop. 12,374), with the atolls of Rangiroa, Hao, Tur  ia, Mururoa, and Fangataufa (the latter two used for nuclear tests since 1966), as well as the Gambier Islands (14 mi<sup>2</sup> [36 km<sup>2</sup>], pop. 600) situated further east; the Austral or Tubuai Islands (63 mi<sup>2</sup> [164 km<sup>2</sup>], pop. 6509), with Rimatara, Rurutu, Tubuai, Raivavae, and Rapa; and the Marquesas Islands (492 mi<sup>2</sup> [1274 km<sup>2</sup>], pop. 7358), with Nuku Hiva, Ua Pu, Ua Huka, Hiva Oa, Tahuata, and Fatu Hiva. The Windward and Leeward Islands in their turn form the Society Islands group, given this name by the Royal Society of London, which financed the expedition led by James Cook that landed there in 1769, two years after their discovery by Samuel Wallis (1767) and the year after de Bougainville's voyage (1768).

The largest of the islands of French Polynesia which are all volcanic and coral in origin, is Tahiti. It is formed by the joining of two large volcanic cones, culminating in Mt. Orohena (7350 ft [2241 m]). Covered with tropical rainforest, it supports thriving plantations (cotton, sugar cane, and coffee) and the cultivation of coconut palms that supply nuts and copra. Tourism is a significant resource. The other archipelagoes of French Polynesia were discovered by the Spaniard Alvaro Menda  a de Neyra, who landed on the Marquesas Islands (1595), and by the Portuguese explorer Pedro Fern  ndez de Quir  s, who disembarked on other mountainous islands with peaks exceeding 3300 ft [1000 m], including the Tuamotus (1606). The British explorers Cook and James Wilson landed respectively on the Austral (1769) and Gambier Islands (1797). The small island of Clipperton (3 mi<sup>2</sup> [7 km<sup>2</sup>]), located 682 mi [1100 km] southwest of the Mexican coast, is also part of French Polynesia.

**Wallis and Futuna.** Located between Samoa and Fiji, these small archipelagoes were discovered respectively by the Englishman Samuel Wallis (1767) and by the Dutchman William Schouten (1616); they became French possessions in 1842. Volcanic and coral in nature (Futuna also has sedimentary outcroppings from the Cenozoic era), they have elevations that culminate at 476 ft [145 m] on Wallis and 2509 ft [765 m] on Futuna. Extending over 98 mi<sup>2</sup> [255 km<sup>2</sup>], with a total population of 15,000 (1990 estimate), they comprise two distinct archipelagoes: the Hoorn Islands, with Futuna (25 mi<sup>2</sup> [64 km<sup>2</sup>], pop. over 4000) and Alofi (20 mi<sup>2</sup> [51 km<sup>2</sup>], uninhabited), and the Wallis Islands, with Uvea (61 mi<sup>2</sup> [159 km<sup>2</sup>], pop. approximately 10,000), where the capital Mata-Utu (pop. 1000) is located. The economy is based on agriculture (copra, cassava, and tropical fruits) and stock raising (pigs and goats).

## NEW ZEALAND POSSESSIONS IN OCEANIA

New Zealand's sovereignty in the Pacific extends over three Polynesian archipelagoes: the Cook Islands, Tokelau, and Niue.

**Cook Islands.** The Cook archipelago is located about 1984 mi [3200 km] northeast of New Zealand, between latitudes 9   and 23   S. It is made up of 15 small islands, generally subdivided into the Northern Cook Islands, which are coral in nature and small in

size, and the larger Southern Cook Islands of volcanic origin. The archipelago, which acquired full self-rule in 1965 in free association with New Zealand, extends over 93 mi<sup>2</sup> [240 km<sup>2</sup>]. The climate is oceanic tropical, with average temperatures of 75  F [24  C] and an annual rainfall of about 78 in. [2000 mm].

The population of about 18,000, mostly Maori, is concentrated on the southern islands, particularly Rarotonga, where the capital, Avarua (over 9000 inhabitants), is located. The official language is English, and the Protestant faith predominates. Agriculture yields coconuts, citrus, pineapples, and bananas; pearl fishing is a traditional activity. The tourist industry is well developed.

**Niue.** A 100-mi<sup>2</sup> [259 km<sup>2</sup>] atoll lying 250 mi [400 km] east of Tonga (19   S latitude), Niue became self-governing in 1974, in free association with New Zealand. The approximately 3000 inhabitants of Polynesian origin live in coastal villages, the largest of which is the capital Alofi. The main activity is agriculture, which supplies copra, bananas, and fruit.

**Tokelau.** The Tokelau are a group of madreporic islets located north of Samoa between latitudes 8   and 10   S; they were annexed by New Zealand in 1948. The atolls cover a total area of 4 mi<sup>2</sup> [10 km<sup>2</sup>] and are inhabited by some 2000 Polynesians whose main economic activity is cultivating coconut palms.

## UNITED STATES POSSESSIONS IN OCEANIA

Excluding the Hawaiian Islands, the Midways Islands, and some other smaller islands, the U.S.-controlled Pacific archipelagoes and islands extend over an area of about 656 mi<sup>2</sup> [1700 km<sup>2</sup>] and have a population of some 240,000 inhabitants.

**Guam.** Physically part of the Northern Marianas, Guam (209 mi<sup>2</sup> [541 km<sup>2</sup>], pop. 133,152 in 1990) is an unincorporated territory ceded to the U.S. by Spain in 1898. The capital is Agana (pop. about 5000). The economy is based on agriculture and stock raising, as well as on food-processing and petrochemical industries. An American naval base is located at Apra.

**Northern Mariana Islands.** Politically this archipelago (184 mi<sup>2</sup> [477 km<sup>2</sup>], pop. 43,345 in 1990) constitutes the Commonwealth of Northern Mariana Islands, with its own regulations and government. Garapan, on the island of Saipan, is the capital. The inhabitants are U.S. citizens and are actively engaged in agriculture, fishing, and stock raising.

**Palau.** This archipelago, made up of 26 principal islands and about 300 small islets (188 mi<sup>2</sup> [487 km<sup>2</sup>] and 15,122 inhabitants in 1990), is an autonomous republic administered as a U.S. Trust Territory. The population's main economic activities are agriculture, shipbuilding, and fishing. The capital is Koror (10,501 inhabitants in 1990).

**American Samoa.** These islands (77 mi<sup>2</sup> [199 km<sup>2</sup>], pop. 46,773 in 1990) also constitute an unincorporated territory with its own legislative and government bodies. The capital is Pago Pago (pop. 3000), on the island of Tutuila. The principal crops are bananas and coconut palms. Tourism is fairly well developed.



# OCEANIA

## Images

1. A hei-tiki, a jadeite chest pendant depicting an ancestor. Despite European colonization, Maori culture, which derives from the complex religious worldview of this New Zealand ethnic group, still survives today and is one of the most interesting in Oceania. Maori art, for the most part decorative and used to embellish domestic articles and community buildings, also draws inspiration from a higher spiritual plane. Maori religious life is dominated by an ancestor cult; the depiction of great leaders from the past and heroes enables their beneficent power to be spread among the living.

2. View of the Blue Mountains and the peaks called "The Three Sisters." The Blue Mountain chain, which crosses eastern Australia near Sydney, has impressive granite formations that emerge from the forest as bare slopes, often divided by deep gorges due to erosion.

3. The island landscape of Tasmania near Port Davey. Tasmania is more or less triangular with a rather jagged coastline edged by rocks and islands. The territory is made up of a vast plateau that rises 4000–5000 ft [1200–1500 m], running northwest to southeast in a

series of steep slopes similar in form and structure to those of the southeastern regions of Australia, from which this land was separated during the Quaternary. At its highest altitudes the landscape features numerous lakes and moraine deposits from the last ice age.

4. One of the most famous and spectacular landmarks of Australia, illuminated by moonlight: the red slopes of Ayers Rock, a unique rock formation that dates back approximately 600 million years. Like an iceberg, this majestic monolith of red sandstone—about 2 mi [3 km] long by 1.6 mi [2.5 km] wide, with a circumference of almost 5.6 mi [9 km]—exposes only a small part of its bulk, which rises 1141 ft [348 m] above the Earth and extends underground. For more than 6800 ft [2100 m].

5. The snow-capped peaks of Mt. Sefton in the foreground and Mt. Cook (12,346 ft [3764 m]) in the background are among the highest in the Southern Alps of New Zealand. The mountains run nearly the entire length of the South Island, forming a more or less continuous, impassable barrier that follows the orientation of the North Island.

6. A violent eruption of fiery

lava and steam gushes forth from the immense crater of Kilauea, a perennially active volcano located on the largest island of the Hawaiian archipelago. All the Hawaiian islands are volcanic in origin and the result of the superimposition of successive layers of basaltic lava.

7. Throughout New Zealand, but particularly on the North Island, there has been and continues to be considerable volcanic activity. There are fumaroles, solfataras, mofettes, and spectacular geysers such as the one shown here, where superheated steam and jets of water spurt up hundreds of feet.

8. The Lady Knox geyser is one of the many natural attractions in the hot-spring region of Waiotapu, New Zealand. Bubbling mud, sulfur springs, and hot springs abound in the area around Lake Rotorua. The waters of the lake, collected by some five hot-spring establishments, are considered rich in therapeutic properties and particularly curative for rheumatic and skin ailments.

9. A sulfurous lake in the Waiotapu hot-spring region, known as the "champagne pool." New Zealand's volcanic activity, the most recent

expression of which are geysers, originally dates back to a bradyseismic movement upward that occurred during the Miocene epoch. In the succeeding Pliocene, a complex mountain-building phase began, followed by the formation of massive volcanic structures

10. A Polynesian sunset over the Pacific. For centuries Polynesia captured the imagination and filled the dreams of European poets, artists, and travelers, to the point where it came to symbolize in the Western collective consciousness a true earthly paradise, with its luxuriant vegetation and fertile lands, tropical climate, incomparable seas, and beautiful native peoples. According to Polynesian myth, the world emerged from the embrace of Heaven and Earth; in the Tahitian poem that tells of the origin of life, in the beginning there was nothingness, then there was steam, from which perceivable and comprehensible things were formed, then the soft land, and finally the stones and mountains.

11. The Great Barrier Reef extends for over 1200 mi [2000 km] along Australia's Queensland coast, from New Guinea to the Tropic of Cancer. This is one of the



greatest natural wonders on Earth, indeed considered the "eighth wonder of the world." Discovered by the English voyager James Cook in 1770, it was formed from the calcareous skeletons of billions of minuscule sea polyps that accumulated over the course of approximately 15,000 years. The almost total absence of safe crossings through the dense reef of coral that blankets the depths has always hindered the emergence of urban centers or significant economic activity on the coasts, particularly along the central section.

12. A tropical atoll in the Fiji Islands, which are situated in the middle of the Pacific Ocean over 1200 mi [2000 km] from the coast of New Zealand in an auspicious location along the most important trade route that runs from the ports of Auckland in New Zealand and Sydney in Australia to Honolulu in Hawaii, and on to San Francisco on the U.S. mainland. The Fiji group consists of about 320 islands of varying sizes, only a third of which are inhabited. Volcanic in origin, they are surrounded in many places by coral reefs that rise above or lie just below sea level, often impeding navigation among the archipelago's numerous atolls.

13. A koala resting on a eucalyptus branch, the leaves of which are its only source of nourishment. During millennia of prehistoric isolation animal life in Australia developed in forms different from those in the rest of the world. In particular, marsupials are distinguished by their pouches, which set them apart from placental animals that evolved on other continents. The number of koalas has greatly diminished because their natural habitat was destroyed by European colonizers who also killed them for their soft, velvety fur.

14. The head of the Australian cassowary, a rare species of large bird with reddish-blue plumage, sprouts a horny,

helmet-shaped growth that varies in size from one bird to another. Fearful and shy, the cassowary hides in the densest forests and comes out only at night, making it very difficult to observe. Australia's avifauna is among the richest in the world and includes 700 species of birds, 530 of which are endemic.

15. A monk seal, an extremely rare subspecies of the more common pinniped seal, swims in the Pacific waters that surround the archipelago of Hawaii. While rich in native wildlife, before the arrival of humans these island regions were strangely lacking in mammals, which were introduced later, first by the Polynesians, then by European colonizers.

16. Without doubt the kangaroo holds the place of honor among Australian fauna. This characteristic marsupial mammal is one of the continent's best-known symbols. It forages on grasslands in large groups, ready to leap spans of up to 30 ft [9 m] to flee danger. The native species include the giant kangaroo, which is red or gray and can grow taller than humans, and the rat kangaroo, which is less than 1 ft [30 cm] high. The decrease in this mammal's numbers dates back historically to the colonization years, when entire herds of kangaroos were massacred to safeguard the pasturelands, upon which they were grazing and which are rather rare in Australia due to the climatic conditions.

17. An elderly Australian Aborigine from a tribe in the Northern Territory. Surprisingly able to adapt to the various types of climate and physical environments in Australia, the Aborigines made up the only ethnic group for tens of thousands of years. Within a century of European colonization, however, they were nearly completely exterminated, along with the social and economic structure they had created and maintained for millennia prior to the

arrival of outsiders.

18. The Papuan natives, whose residence on New Guinea dates back to ancient times, still constitute the majority of the population of the island. Subdivided into several hundred tribes by socioeconomic characteristics, they are often assimilated into groups of Melanesian origin that inhabit the coast. The Papuans developed a unique agricultural society in which women do most of the physical labor of farming, the principal economic resource of the people.

19. The most common Papuan dwelling is a rough rectangular hut constructed near running water and mounted on wooden piles, with a sloping roof and often having decorative elements such as painted panels or carved posts. The rear of the structure, which can be circular in form with a conical roof, usually holds a stall for animals or a store-room. Two fundamental principles of Papuan society, the clear differentiation of social roles between the sexes and the exclusion of women from religious life, are also reflected in the arrangement of the dwellings. For this reason it is common to find family houses where women and children live and husbands go only to sleep, and a so-called "men's clubhouse," where married men live along with bachelors.

20. An Australian girl of Anglo-Saxon origin holding a charming koala in her arms. In Australia the descendants of Anglo-Saxon immigrants make up a majority of the population (about 80%), while other sizable segments consist of people of German, Dutch, Italian, and Yugoslav ancestry.

21. Two Tahitian children wearing characteristic orchid garlands around their necks and crowns of flowers on their heads. The Society Islands archipelago owes its name to the Royal Society of London, which financed Cook's expedition to the Pacific. For over three centuries, in the Western

imagination, this island group has represented an exotic paradise: broad expanses of palm trees, transparent lagoons, perfumed air, and the enchanting beauty of the wahine—the local Tahitian girls—who symbolize free love.

22. Aboriginal dancers during a ritual ceremony. The participation of women in this type of tribal ritual is not always permitted. On the other hand, there are also exclusively female rituals such as those celebrating fertility, performed by some Australian native groups in the Northern Territory, in which the female is presented as the source of all that is sacred.

23. A native of Pago Pago, an island in the archipelago of American Samoa, steering a typical Polynesian outrigger. Fishing is undoubtedly one of the essential sources of economic survival for the local peoples; handmade nets, spears, and traps of various types are used.

24. Aerial view of the modern city of Canberra, the capital of Australia. Its site was chosen in 1913 as a solution to the political and economic rivalry between Sydney and Melbourne. The 1901 Constitution specified that the Australian capital, until then in Melbourne, was to be built ex novo in New South Wales, no less than 100 mi from Sydney. Thus Canberra arose 186 mi [300 km] from Sydney and approximately 400 mi [650 km] from Melbourne. Laid out along the banks of a tributary of the Murrumbidgee river, in a broad valley enclosed by hills on three sides, Canberra enjoys a typically continental climate with rather marked seasonal differences between the Australian winter and summer.

25. The Sydney (Australia) Opera House, designed by Danish architect Jørn Utzon and begun in 1959, was partially financed through a state lottery organized in New South Wales. Symbol of an architect-

tural modernism considered by some to be too aggressive, it provides the venue for international-caliber ballet, theater, opera, and musical performances.

26. Until 1927 Melbourne, capital of the state of Victoria, was the seat of government for all Australia. In 1835 the city began as a penal colony, taking its name from the British minister at the time, Lord Melbourne. Stretched out along the meandering banks of the Yarra river and along Port Philip Bay, Melbourne vied with Sydney until 1920 for economic and cultural primacy, a rivalry that was strengthened by the fact that Melbourne is the natural center for the export of farm and livestock products from the interior regions of the Murray basin. Broad avenues, parks, and gardens surrounded by gentle hills and small residential suburbs make up Greater Melbourne.

27. A nighttime view of Brisbane Bridge, one of the longest cantilever bridges in the world. Capital of Queensland since 1859, Brisbane has a moderate and almost always tranquil climate that guarantees its inhabitants almost 3000 hours of sun yearly and favors a flourishing tourist industry. Ultramodern skyscrapers, which coexist with the city's many original Victorian-style buildings, form a backdrop for the popular beaches of Australia's Gold Coast, a paradise for surfing and other water sports. While it is the only Australian state capital located along a river rather than directly on the coast, Brisbane is a significant maritime and commercial center, since it is a natural outlet for the entire interior plateau north of the Darling river basin. Thanks to the continual drainage of the river bed, Brisbane can easily accommodate large ships.

28. In a square in the historic center of Honolulu (Hawaii) stands the statue of King Kamehameha, adorned with garlands of exotic flowers. The

dynasty of the Kamehameha sovereigns unified the Hawaiian islands, ruling them as a single kingdom for over a century, until internal disputes occasioned British and American intervention, which marked the beginning of the archipelago's colonization.

29. Before the construction of Honolulu's extremely modern skyscrapers, the Aloha tower was the highest building on the island. The meaning of the Polynesian term "Aloha" goes beyond its literal translation of "enjoy life in friendship" and expresses a way of life animated by kindness and hospitality that stems from ancient native religious beliefs and has always distinguished the Hawaiian people.

30. Aerial view of the port and railroad station of Wellington, capital of New Zealand. The city extends along the western shore of the vast and well-protected Port Nicholson Bay. The northernmost of its inlets, Lambton Harbor, is the site of the second-largest commercial port in the country, located along the shipping lanes that link New Zealand to the rest of the world.

31. A spectacular aerial view of an immense Australian sugar-cane plantation. Sugar cane, which is cultivated throughout Queensland and New South Wales, is the area's most significant industrial crop and constitutes an important export. The presence and utilization of the largest artesian basin in the world, drained by the Darling and Murray rivers, has allowed humans to modify preexisting environmental conditions that were unfavorable to agriculture because of a scarcity of pasture and grazing land. Within the span of only a few decades, intensive agriculture and livestock raising have been developed.

32. Sunset view of the dense irrigation network of a cotton field. Cotton, which is grown especially in the Australian regions of New South Wales and Queensland, was once

important to the national economy, but now must compete with products from the U.S., Pakistan, and other nations.

33. Grain harvest in New Zealand. The crop is loaded onto trucks and transported to processing centers and commercial ports. The sparse population and special environmental conditions that impede the growth of grass in many regions of the country have encouraged a pastoral economy, where agriculture continues to be significant but is losing ground to the more specialized and developed raising of cattle and sheep.

34. Timber being transported along the waters of White Bay, near the Australian city of Sydney. Australian forest areas suitable for economic exploitation yield considerable quantities of prized woods, including numerous varieties of eucalyptus, which supply most of the lumber used for construction, and harder woods used for making plywood. There are also many indigenous varieties of pine, particularly throughout New South Wales and Queensland. Reforestation has been introduced after decades of indiscriminate cutting that notably impoverished the forest cover along the Great Dividing Range.

35. Sheep shearing on a farm in Queensland, Australia. The raising of sheep, one of Australia's most important and profitable economic activities, is extensive, with particularly suitable terrain in the vast grassy highlands in the west and east. Wool alone, especially that from the prized Merino sheep of Queensland, accounts for at least a third of all the country's exports. Despite the recent discovery of extremely rich mineral deposits, Australia's traditional economy remains anchored to two equally profitable activities: fruit and vegetable growing and the raising of sheep and cattle, the latter a primary source of wool, meat, and dairy product exports. Stock

raising is threatened, however, by periods of drought that deplete the grasslands and compel sheep- and cattle-raisers to sell inferior-grade animals at extremely low prices in order to feed the remaining better specimens.

36. An open-pit uranium mine in Kakadu National Park (Northern Territory, Australia). A century after the "gold rush" hit the United States, the discovery of fabulous mineral reserves revolutionized the Australian economy, formerly based on stock raising and agriculture. This led to the development of industries tied to the mining of natural reserves of iron, aluminum, bauxite, uranium, and coal. Australia still possesses the world's largest reserves of extractable uranium, but their exploitation is strongly opposed by unions and by Aboriginal groups, which see their lands threatened.

37. Offshore oil well in Australia's Northern Territory. Drilling for oil began after the 1961 discovery of the first reserves in Moornie. Other hydrocarbon fields were then identified and exploited in various parts of the country. Australia also has an active refining industry.

38-39. The industrial activities of Oceania are well represented in the region's two largest countries, Australia and New Zealand. Sectors of advanced production include the iron and steel industry, with substantial output of cast iron and steel, and the metallurgical industry, which processes copper, lead, zinc, and aluminum. The first photograph shows a steel mill in Newcastle, Australia, the second a foundry in New Zealand.

40. View of the impressive dam over Lake Argyle, the largest artificial basin in Australia. In addition to supplying the hydroelectric industry, artificial lake basins built in the western Australian regions richest in water sources serve to irrigate farmland and to

maintain the grazing lands set aside for livestock.

41. Waikiki, along with Honolulu, are two of Oahu's best known beaches and extremely popular with tourists from all over the world. Oahu is Hawaii's third-largest island and has been greatly affected by American modernization, with the result that many natural and fascinating landscapes have been spoiled by skyscrapers, viaducts, and highway tunnels built only a few miles from the ocean.

42–43. Aboriginal rock paintings found in a part of Kakadu National Park (Northern Territory, Australia) known as Nourlangie Rock. Unlike the art forms of Oceania's islands, which are essentially those of agrarian peoples, examples of painting and sculpture by indigenous Australians represent the work of hunters and gatherers who were extremely imaginative in their use of simple stone, wood, and bone weapons and tools. Part of the continuing fascination of these paintings is their numerous references to the Aboriginal world of magic and social organization, in which role the elders held the most privileged and respected position. According to the religious beliefs of the Aboriginal artists, all creation was the work of the "Dreaming" beings, portrayed as half animal, half human, who gave people the technical tools and laws that govern the social, economic, and religious life of society. These creator beings, whose exploits were narrated in legends that differed from region to region, were the protagonists of most religious ceremonies and therefore constituted a recurring subject of rock carvings, paintings, bark sculptures, and other local forms of artistic expression.

44–46. Easter Island, which received its name from its discovery on Easter Day in 1722, is the site of over 300 moai figures. The statues on the northern coast of Ahu Tahai (the first two photographs respectively show a single moai and

a group of moai against an ocean background) and along the slopes of Rano Raraku volcano (third picture) are well known. Carved out of gray volcanic stone resting on a single base, the moai are about 30 ft [9 m] high and all have the same characteristic features; they depict busts with human prognathous faces posed with hands on the stomach, generally standing on a special platform-altar (ahu). The scarcity of wood on the island, which is arid and without interior water resources, explains the exclusive use of volcanic rock. The actual function and true significance of these colossi, which are thought to date back to the early centuries of the Christian era, are still a mystery, but they are not a novelty in the Pacific region. They are also found on other islands and are probably monuments dedicated to ancestors (tiki). Later migrations of peoples who clashed with the original Polynesian population initiated a period of political, social, and cultural decline and the end of moai art.

47. An ornamental frieze in the sculptural style of the ancient Maori. Maori sculpture, which has an essentially functional as well as decorative value, exhibits extraordinary technical virtuosity, particularly in bas-relief work. The human figure is frequently depicted, either alone or in groups, and often stands out against a background of carved and open-work curvilinear motifs. The characteristic faces show large mouths with the upper lip strongly accentuated and pointed at the center, almost like a bird beak.

48. A Maori totem. From an artistic viewpoint the Maori have developed an autonomous body of work; beginning with the typical premises of ancient east-central Polynesian art, they have arrived at highly ornamental and distinctive creations that can be divided into three genres: figures in the round, ornamental friezes, and carved prows and sterns of dugout canoes.

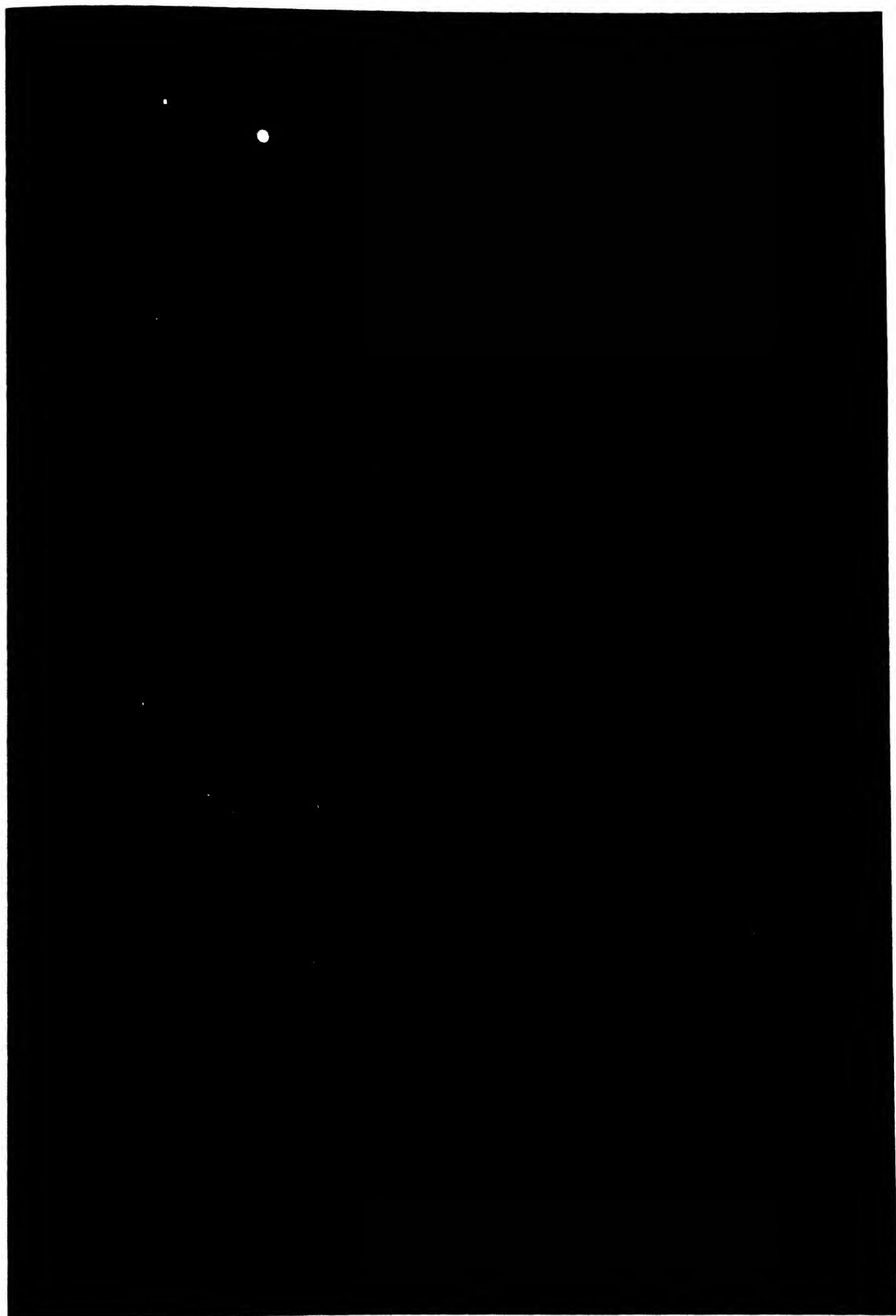
49. A group of Maoris performing the haka, a traditional dance with a vigorous rhythm punctuated by clapping hands and accompanied by elementary dance movements. Warrior epics find their natural expression in the emphatic and declamatory style of the haka, with shouts and claps used to intimidate the adversary and instill courage in the Maori warriors, urging them to attack without hesitation, sure of divine protection. The ancient music of the Maori consisted almost entirely of waiata, songs without instrumental accompaniment and subdivided according to ritual and social function.

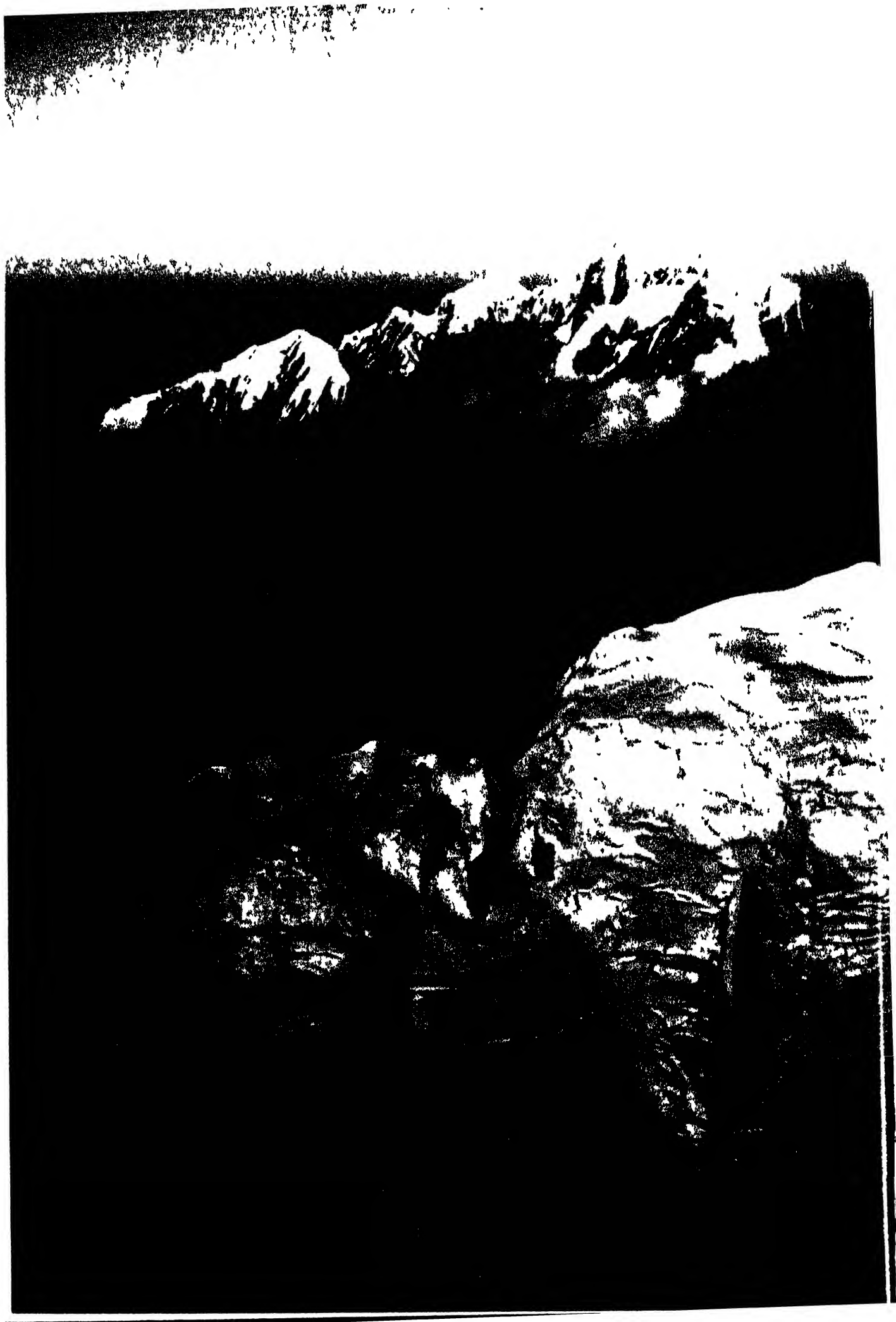
50. An evocative sunset rendition of the hula, a traditional dance performed in Hawaii, celebrating the island's attainment of statehood in the U.S., which officially occurred in 1959. The hula, the highest musical expression of the Hawaiian people, is now known the world over; the dance is communicated in characteristic rhythms, to the accompaniment of folk string and percussion instruments. It is performed at all private and public festivals of Hawaiian folklore.

51. A ritual mask carved out of white wood from the Sepik river region, the area of New Guinea with the richest artistic heritage. Polychrome masks, almost always executed by professional artists, are made for rituals in which the living participate in the world of the dead and carry reliquaries that contain the skull of the deceased, considered the center of the life-force. It is rather difficult to establish clear differences among the styles of the various tribes dwelling along the river, since objects are commonly traded in order to further enrich local ceremonies, indirectly causing the absorption of foreign elements into individual local traditions.

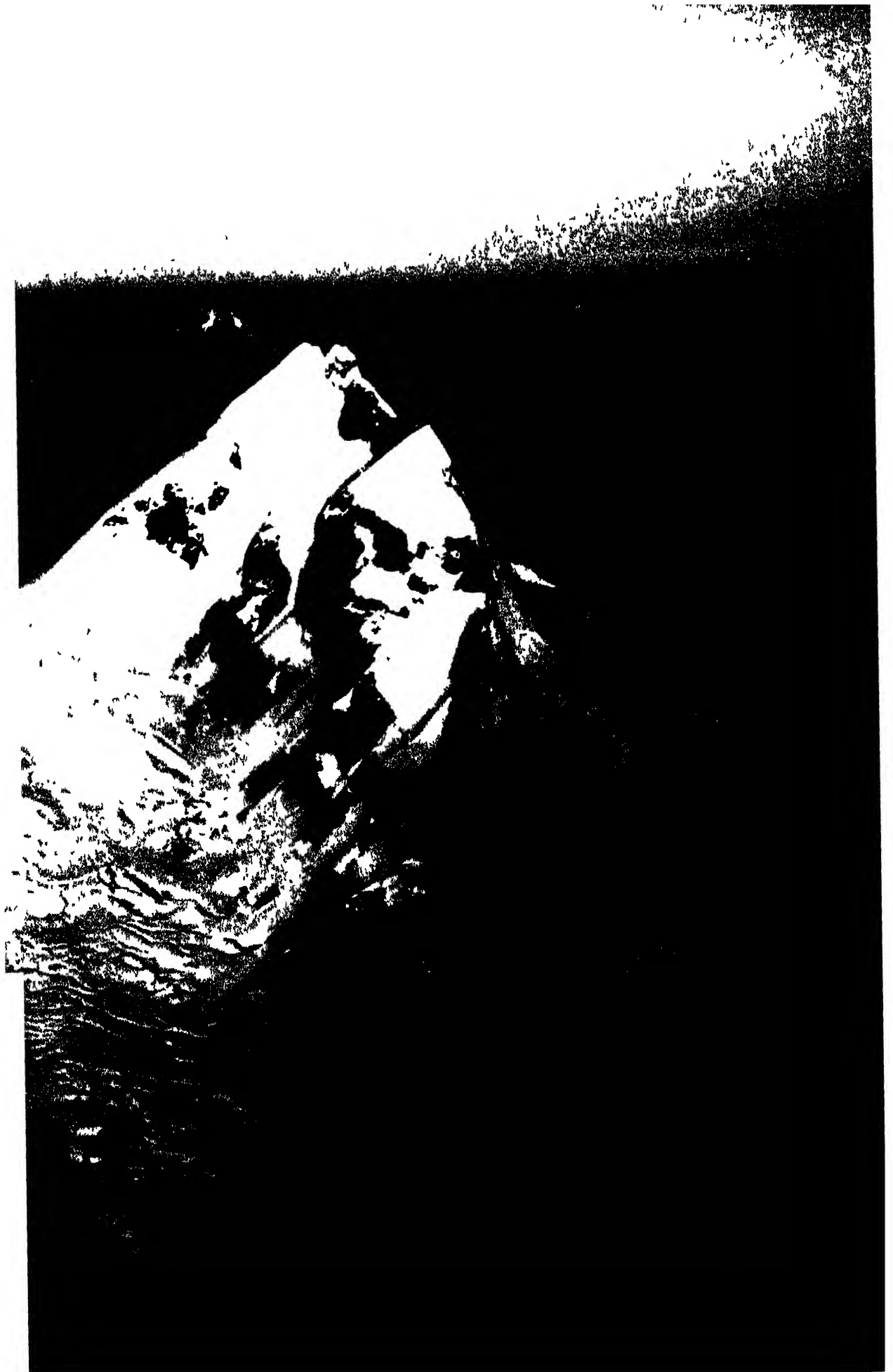




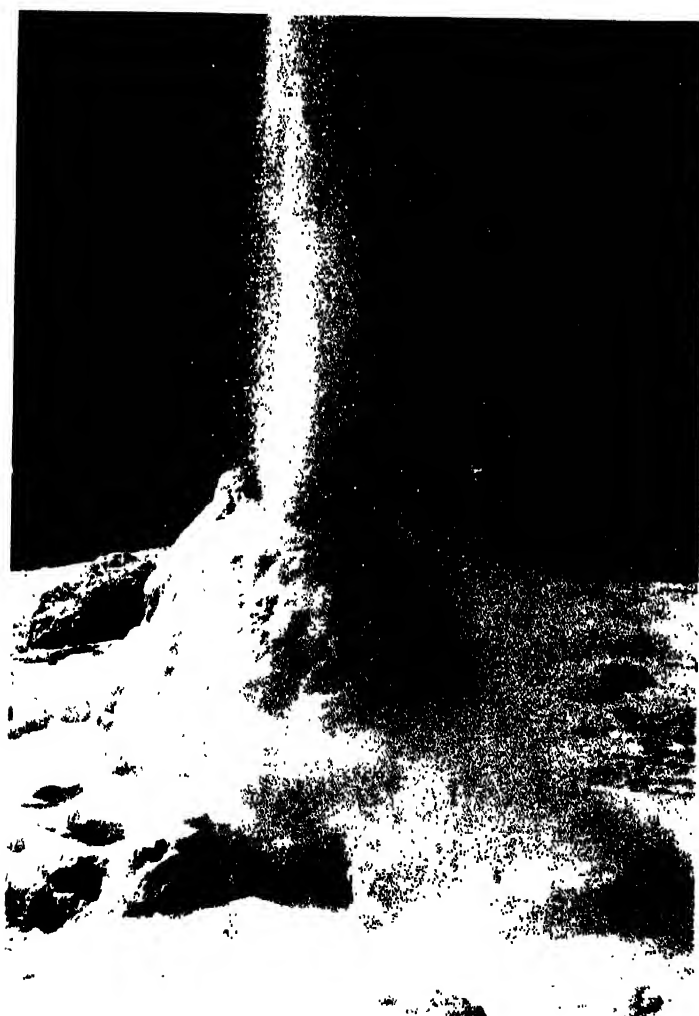
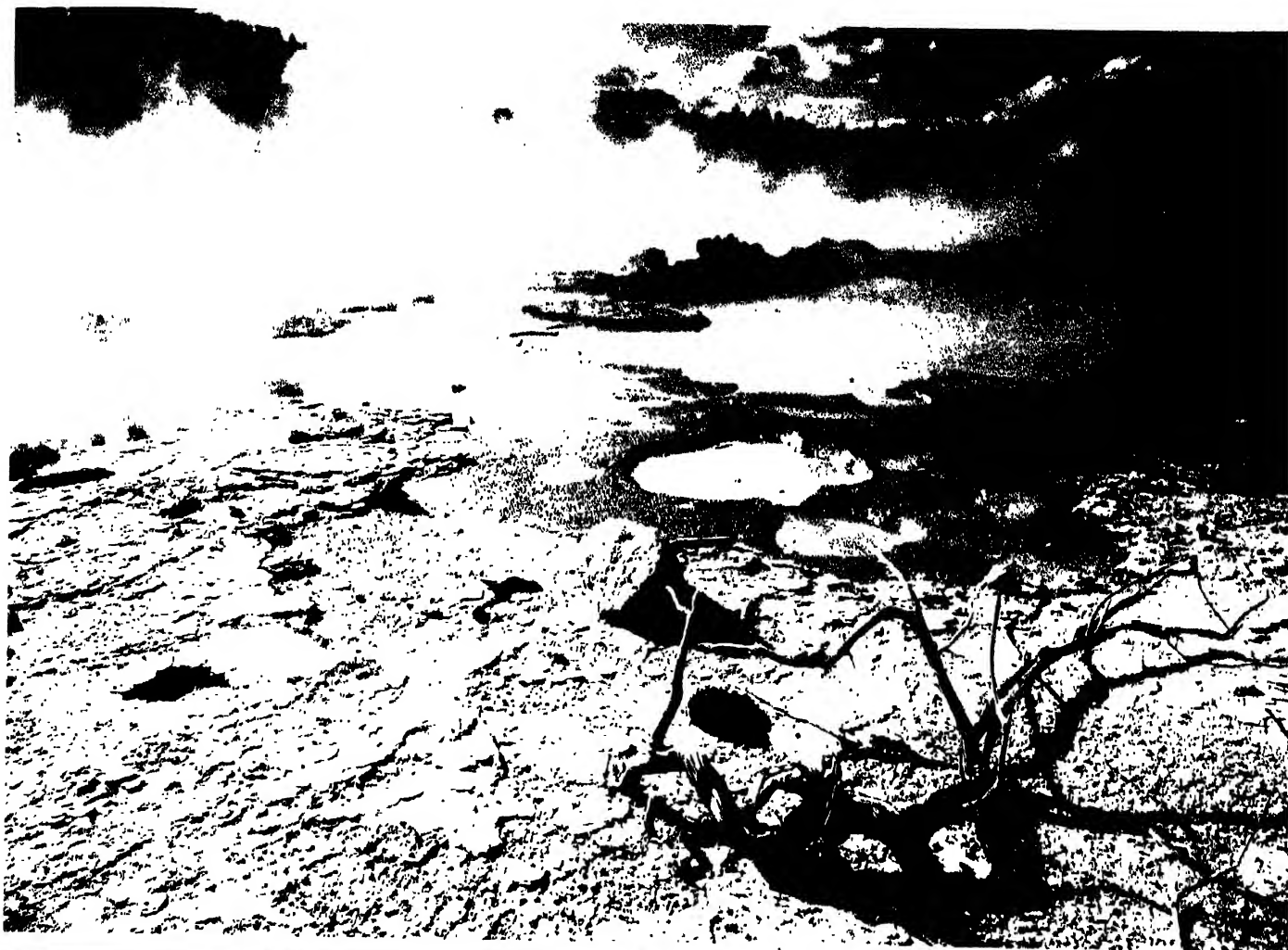
















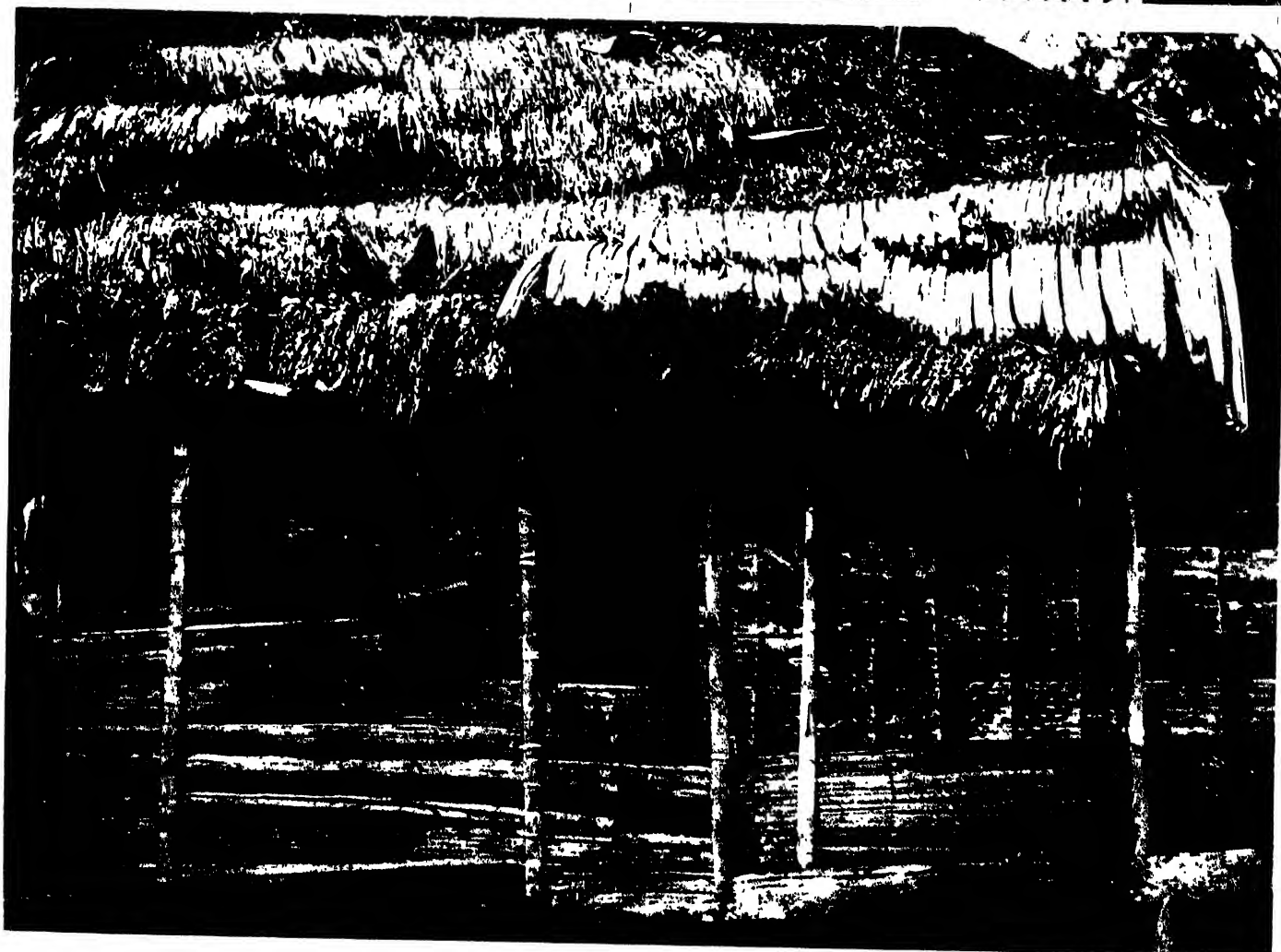








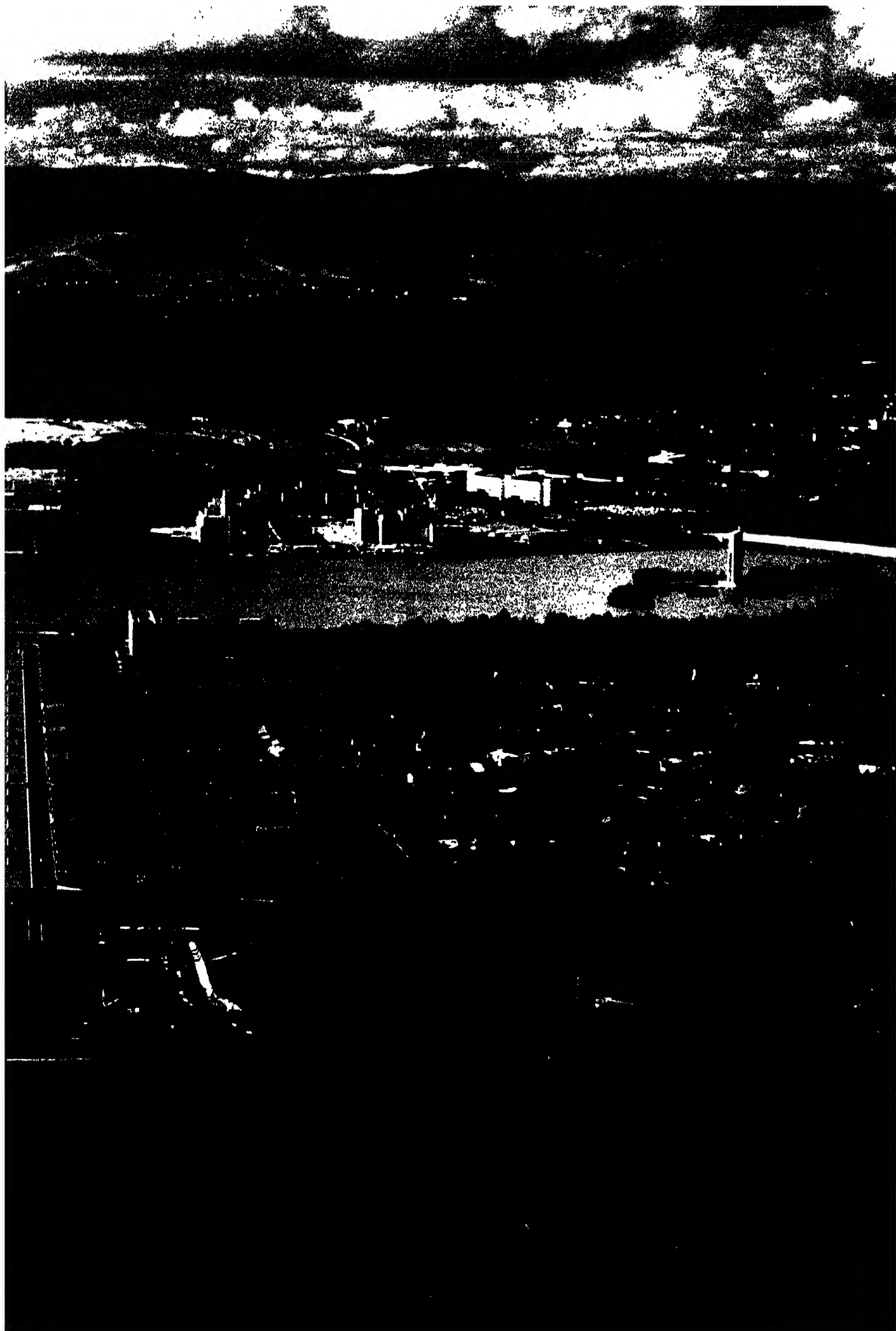


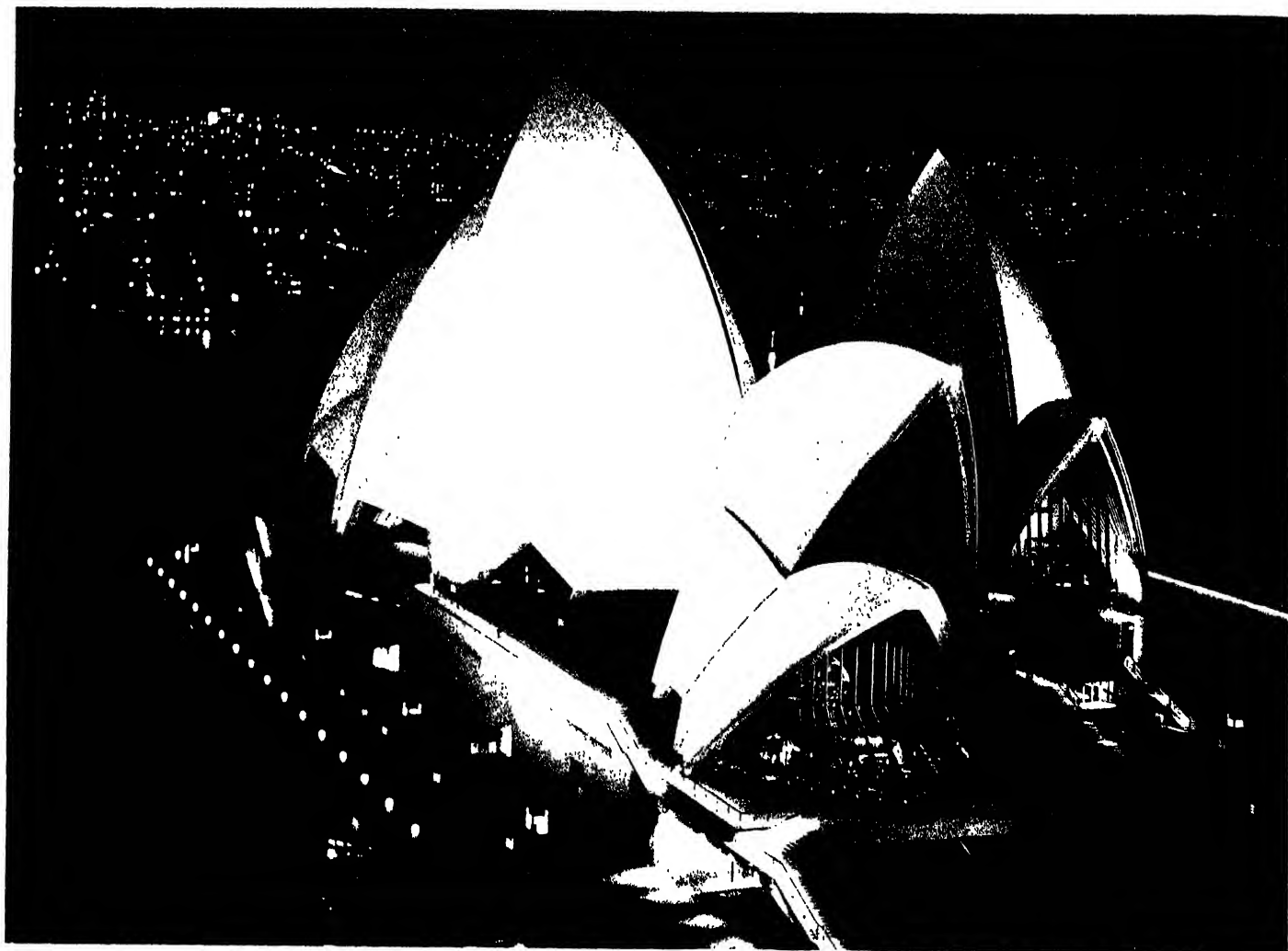




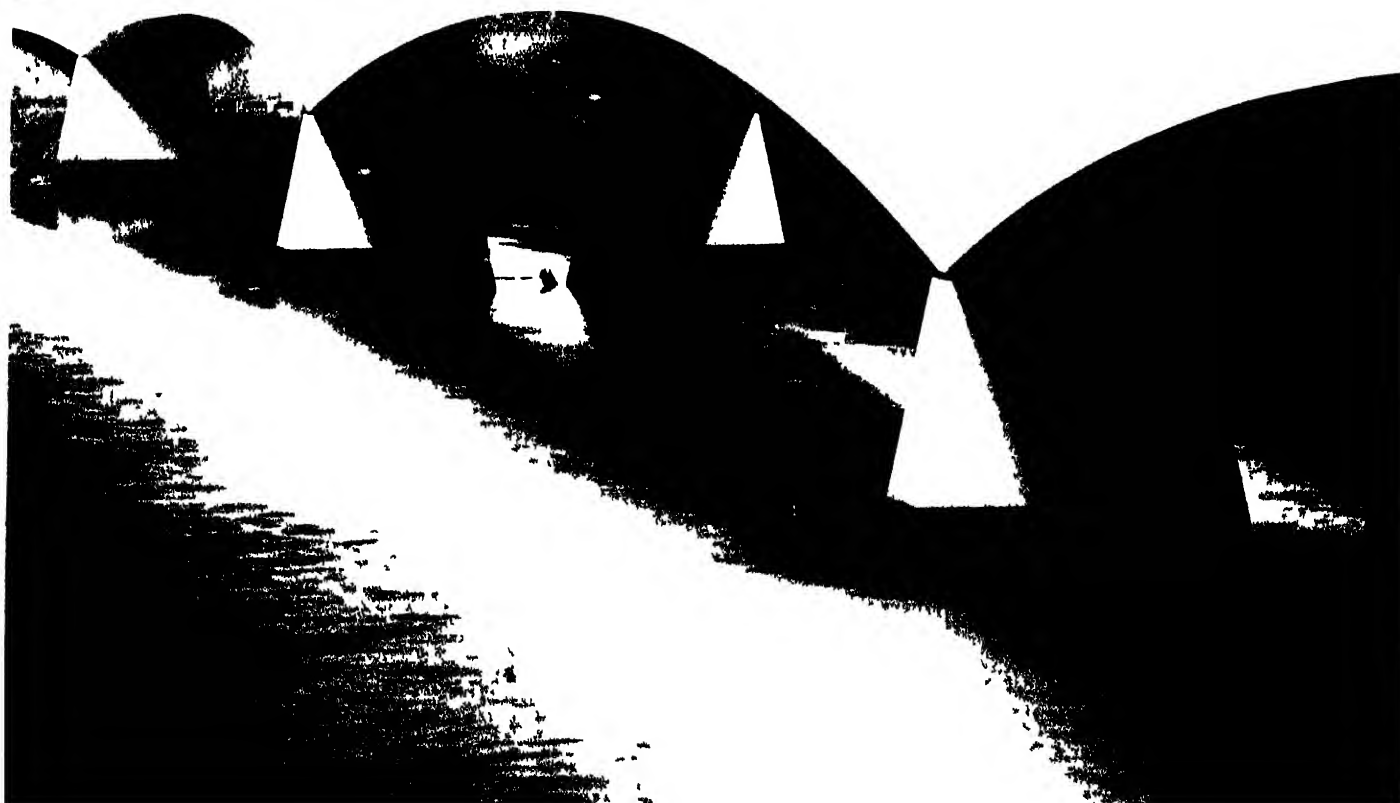


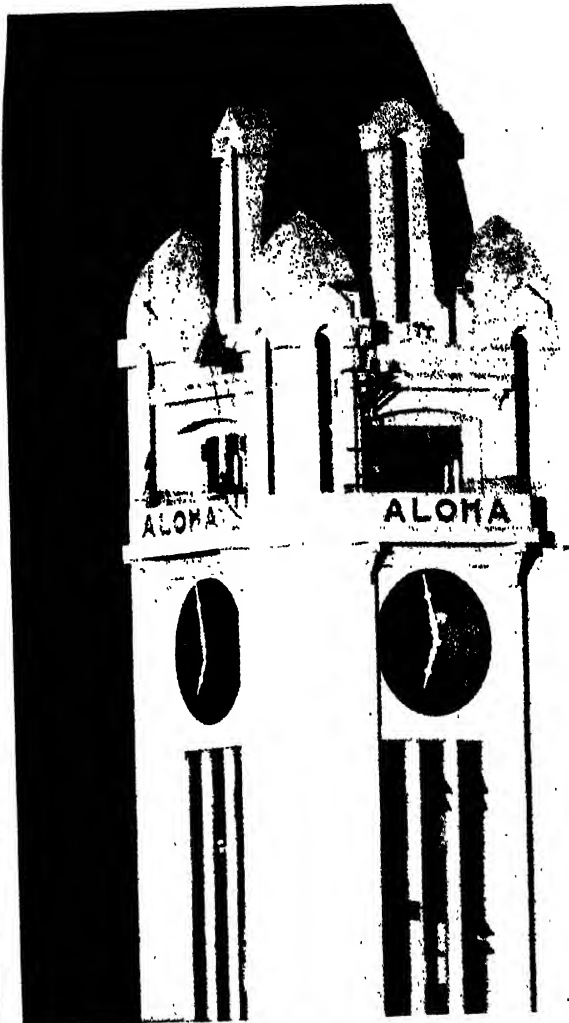
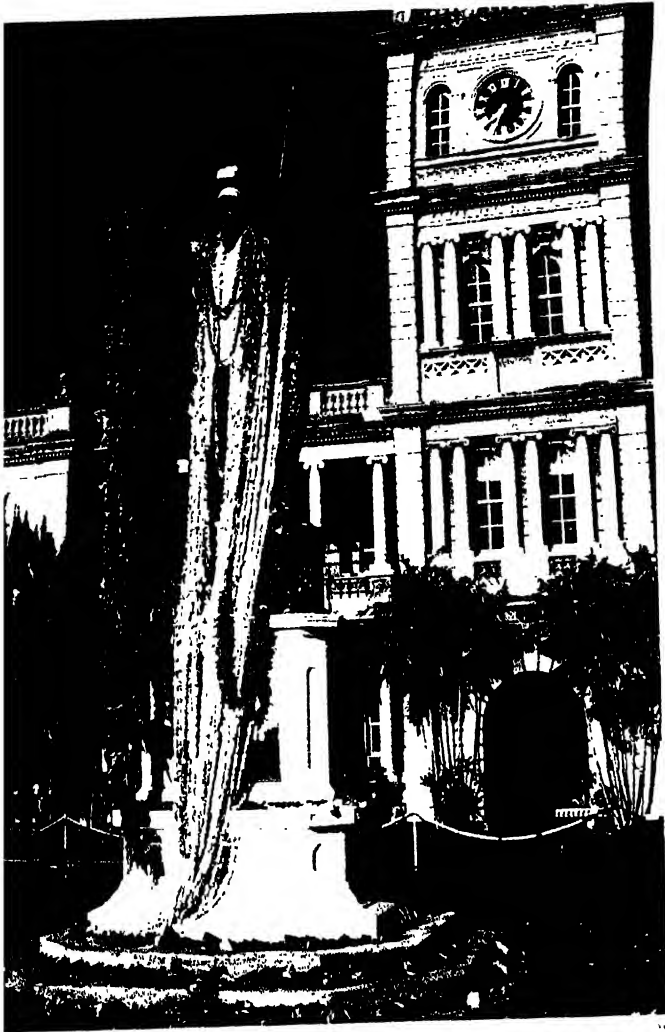


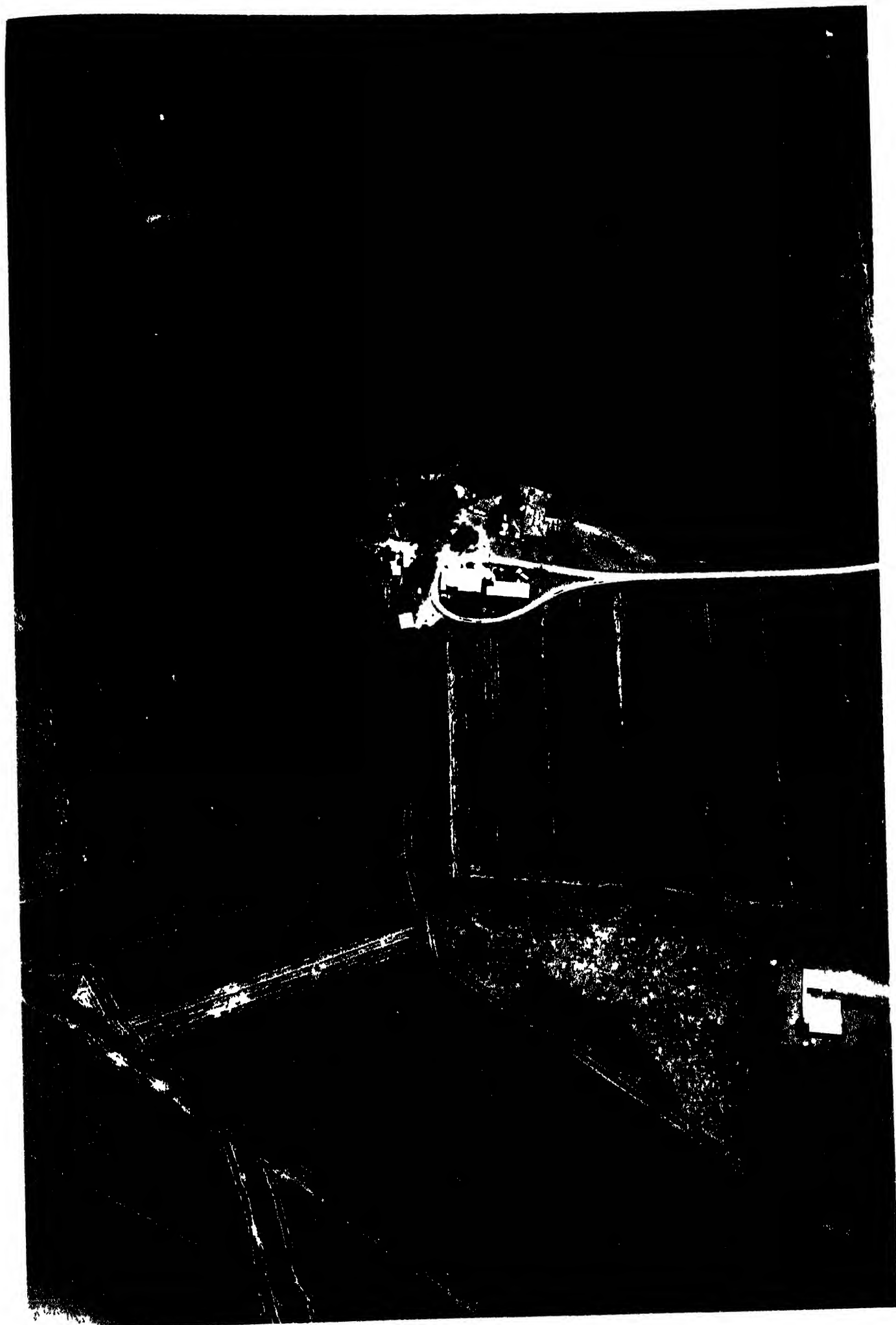


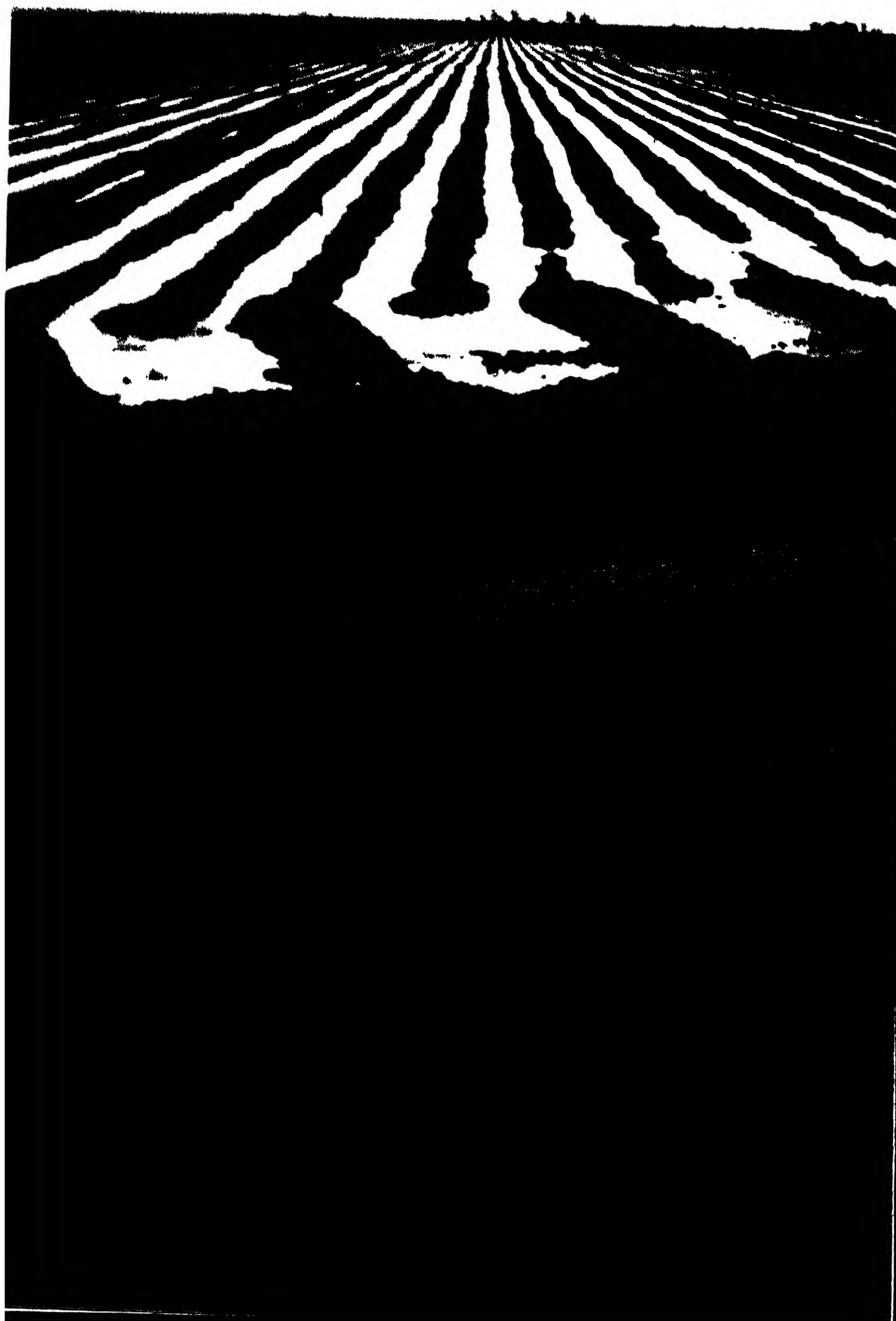














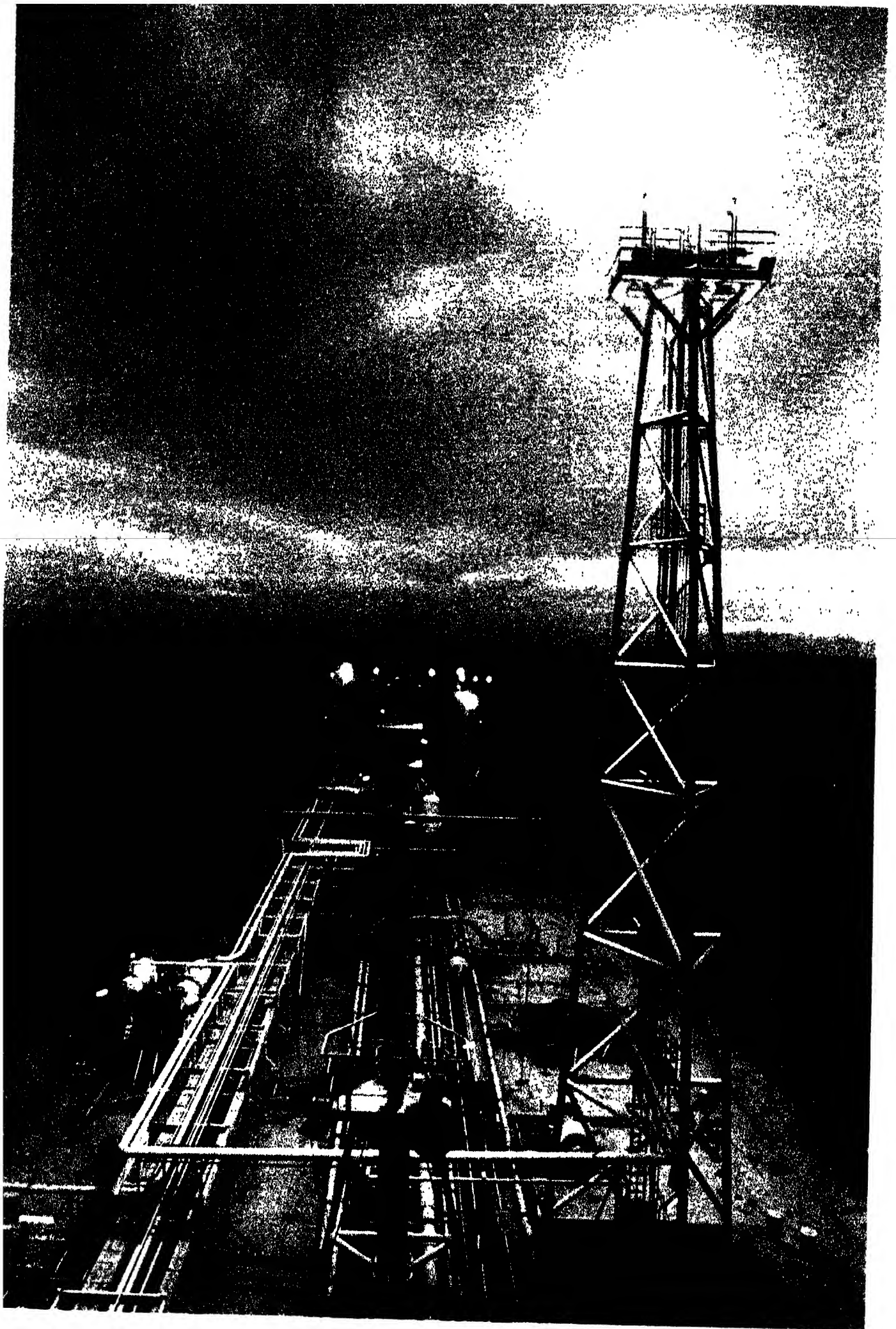


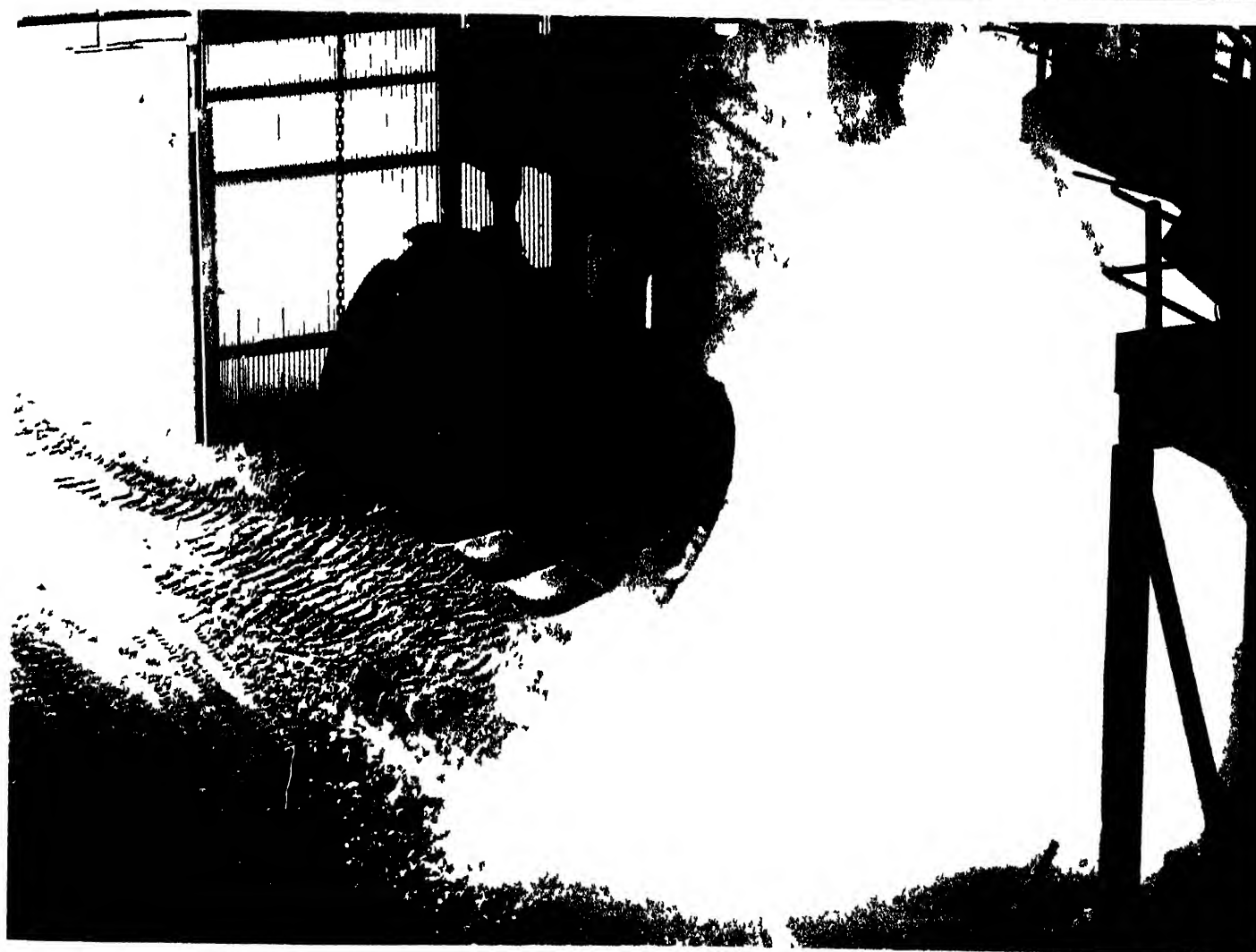


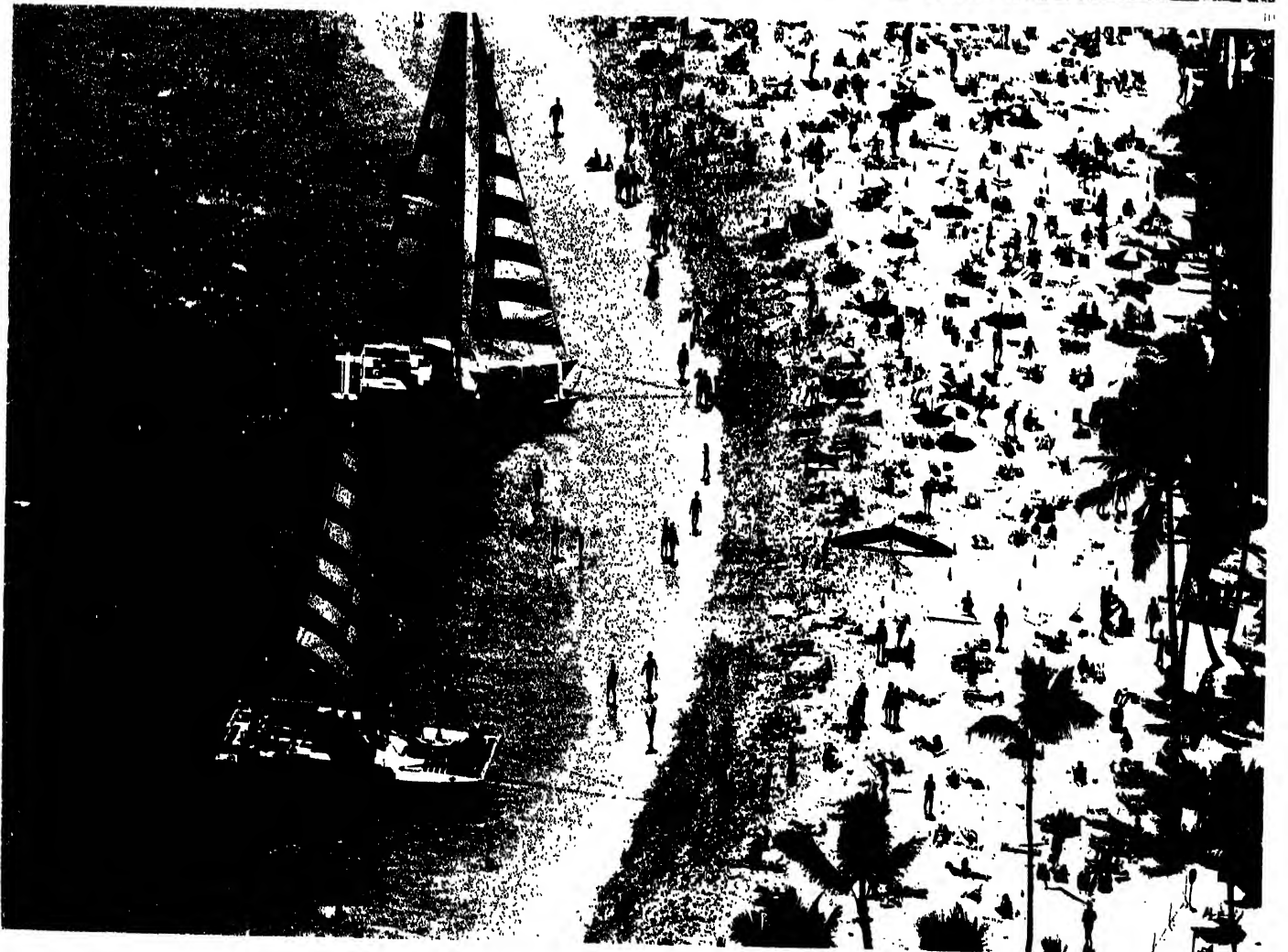
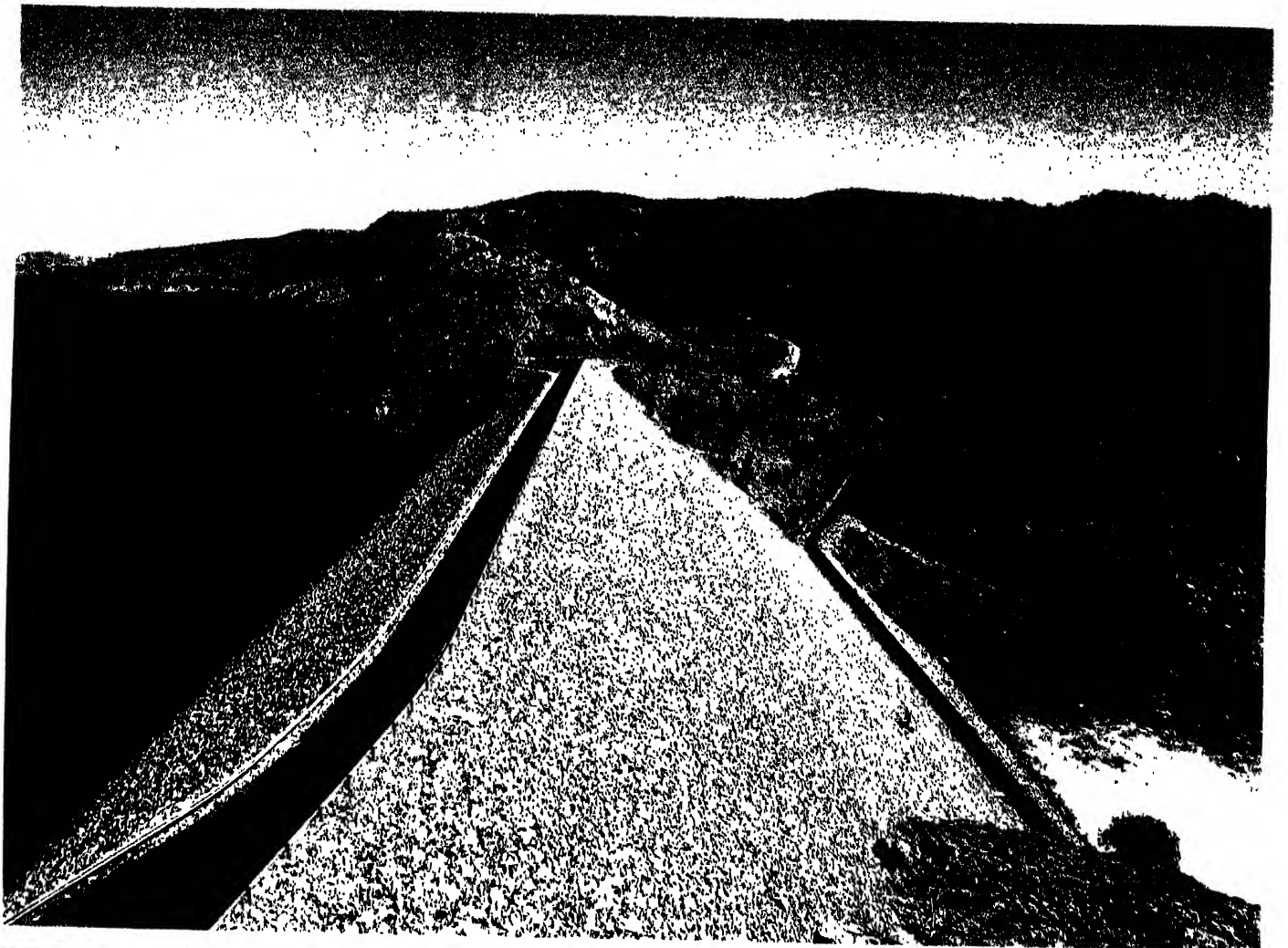






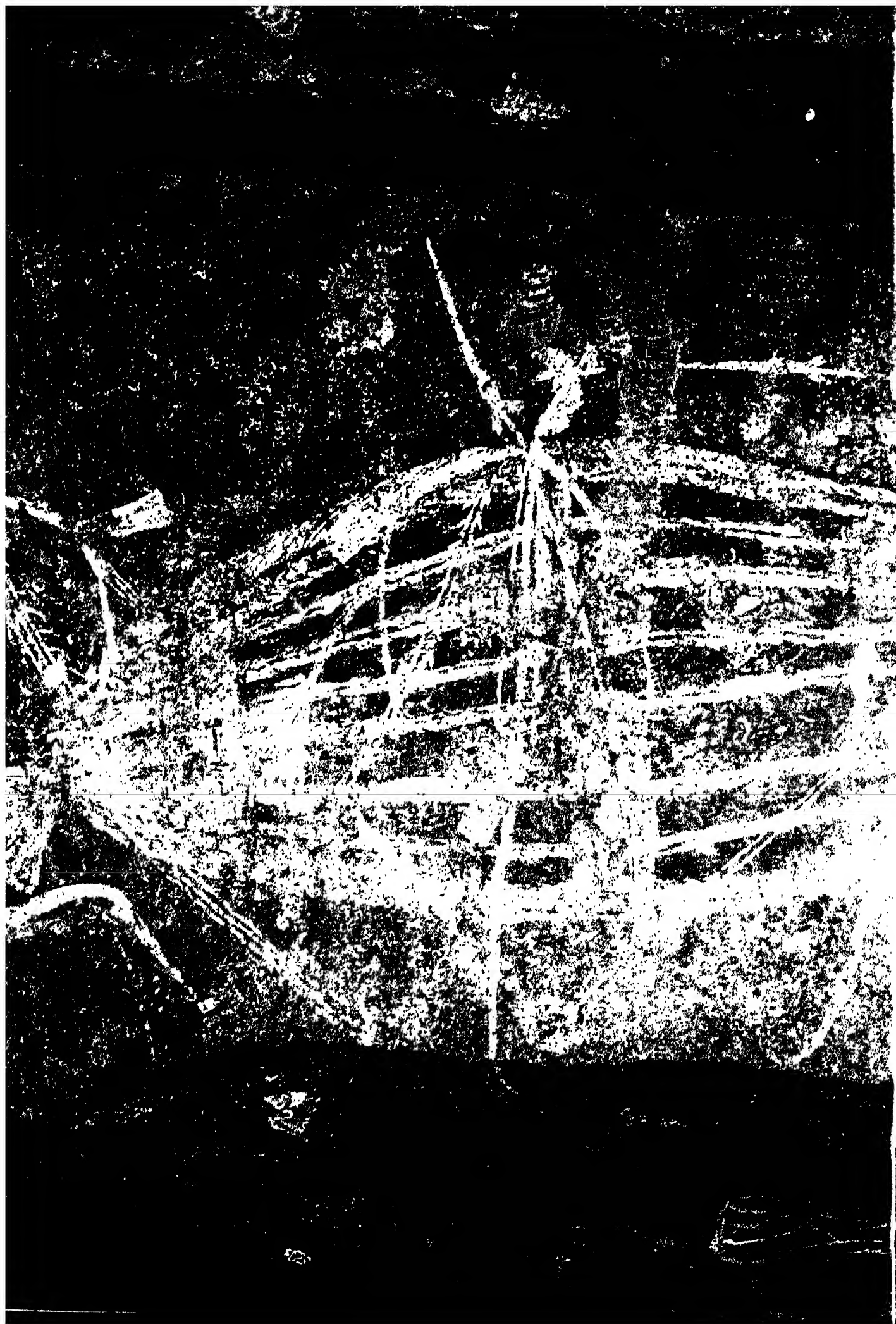
















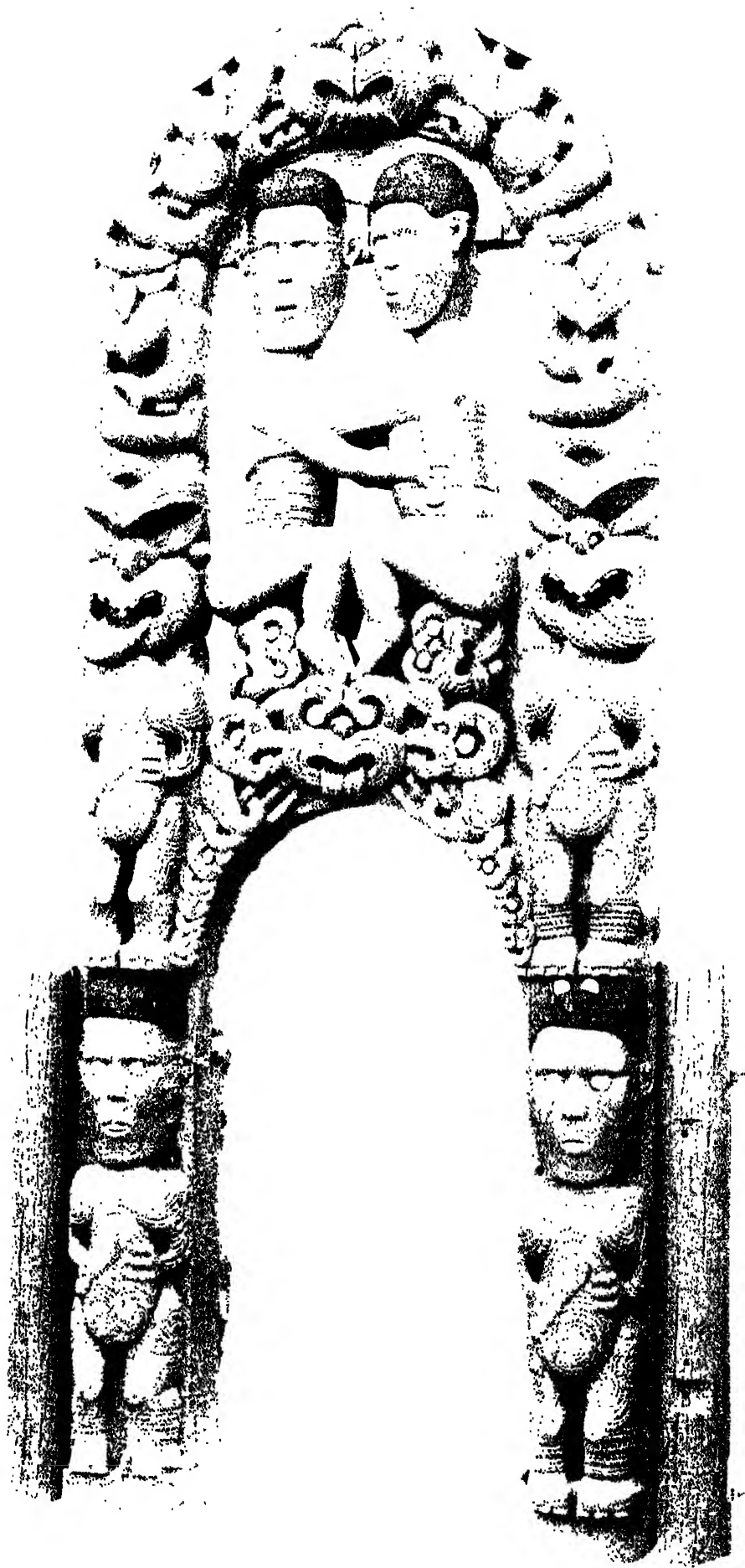






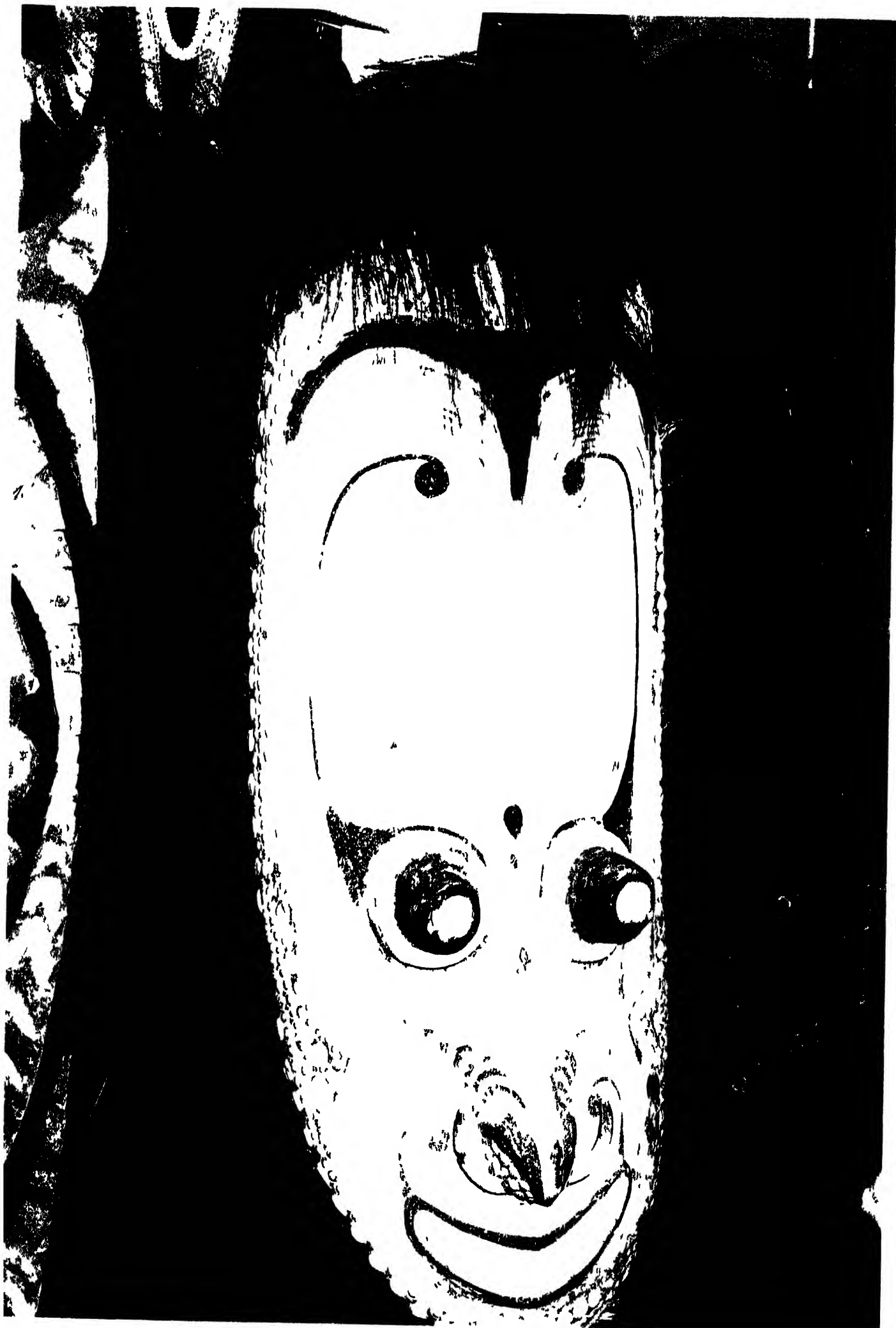












# POLAR REGIONS



**T**he Arctic and Antarctic—the two opposing polar regions—surely have an evocative appeal equal to, or perhaps greater than, that exerted by other places on Earth such as “darkest Africa,” the “mysterious East,” the Amazon rainforest, or the South Seas. There is no other explanation for the tenacious persistence of those who have explored these regions, blazing new trails and confronting extremely harsh environmental conditions. The fascination with the poles has claimed many victims since the beginning of their explorations. What these explorers venturing among the icy darkness of the polar nights were seeking, and what they felt, is something we can only imagine and experience vicariously by reading the accounts of their travels.

## THE ARCTIC

**T**he word “Arctic” is derived from the Greek *arktos*, “bear,” referring to the constellation of Ursa Minor containing the Pole Star, which appears to lie on a line extended from the Earth’s axis of rotation. The Arctic as a geographic entity involves very specific environmental, and especially climatic, conditions. It is climate, after all, that identifies the size and external characteristics of the north polar cap. Some scholars place the boundary of the Arctic along the line followed by the 50°F [10°C] isotherm for the month of July. This also marks the approximate northern limit of tree growth. Others, however, prefer to place the borders of the Arctic region along the 32°F [0°C] annual isotherm, which coincides fairly well with the limits of perennially frozen ground (permafrost). Still others believe that any point at which the mean temperature for the warmest month does not exceed 54°F [12°C] lies within the Arctic Zone.

Depending on these definitions, the area of the Arctic polar region is between 8 and 10 million mi<sup>2</sup> [21–27 million km<sup>2</sup>]. In practice, it includes the extreme northern reaches of North America, Europe, and Asia, including Iceland, Greenland, the Canadian Far North (with Baffin, Ellesmere, Victoria, Banks, and many other islands), northern Alaska with the Brooks

Range, the Aleutians, the archipelagoes of Svalbard, Franz Josef Land, Novaya Zemlya, and Severnaya Zemlya, the New Siberian Islands and others that lie within the Arctic Ocean, and lastly the Taimyr and Chukchi peninsulas and the entire vast Russo-Siberian continental shelf with the mouths of the Pechora, Ob, Yenisei, Lena, and Kolyma, and the other rivers which flow into the Barents, Kara, Laptev, and Eastern Siberian seas.

**The Arctic Ocean.** The Arctic Ocean can be regarded as a continuation of the North Atlantic; there is no actual boundary between the two except that of climate or the average southernmost limit of icebergs, although it could be artificially delimited by the Arctic Circle (66° 33' N latitude). The Arctic Ocean is therefore enclosed within the northern coasts of Asia, Europe, and North America. Its total area can be estimated at about 5.7 million mi<sup>2</sup> [14.8 million km<sup>2</sup>].

The coastline is extremely complex, dotted with archipelagoes and islands that define a number of inland seas: the Chukchi Sea between Alaska and Eastern Siberia; the Beaufort Sea between Alaska and Banks Island; the Lincoln Sea between Ellesmere Island and Greenland; and the Barents Sea between Svalbard, Novaya Zemlya, Franz Josef Land, Norway, and the European coast of Russia. The Kara Sea, between Novaya Zemlya and Severnaya Zemlya; the Laptev Sea, between Severnaya Zemlya and the New Siberian Islands; and the East Siberian Sea, between the New Siberian Islands and Wrangel Island, all lie off the Asiatic coast of Russia. The volume of water in the Arctic Ocean is estimated at 4.1 million mi<sup>3</sup> [17 million km<sup>3</sup>].

The sea floor is characterized by a long ridge (Lomonosov Ridge) that extends from the New Siberian archipelago toward the pole and then toward Ellesmere Island. It is probably related to the great Mid-Atlantic Ridge. The Arctic Ocean reaches its greatest depth (over 18,000 ft [5500 m]) between this ridge and the Svalbard, Franz Josef, and Severnaya Zemlya islands, in a wide basin with an average depth of more than 13,000 ft [4000 m]. The sea floor at the pole itself lies at a depth of 13,405 ft [4087 m].

Most of the Arctic Ocean is covered with surface ice, in the

form of a permanent "pack" that, in winter, extends seamlessly to the land masses which lie around the Arctic basin. At greater depths, although the temperature is slightly below freezing (30.6–31.3°F [–0.8 to –0.4°C]), the seawater remains liquid because its salt content lowers the freezing point. The average thickness of Arctic pack ice is about 10–20 ft [3–6 m]. At certain intervals it breaks up into large floes which are then carried along by surface currents. During the summer, the southern limit of the Arctic pack ice extends from the east coast of Greenland, touches the Svalbard Islands (80° N latitude) and Franz Josef Land, and links the New Siberian and Severnaya Zemlya groups. It then runs along Wrangel Island and skirts the North American coast at a distance of about 190 mi [300 km], joins Parry Island to Ellesmere Island, and closes the circle again at Greenland.

The absence of pack ice during the summer months off Europe's northern coast is due to the Gulf Stream, which raises the water temperature just enough to prevent freezing. Other surface ocean currents circulate in distinct patterns in the central area of the Arctic basin and the Beaufort Sea, while another current runs between Greenland and Baffin Land toward more southerly latitudes, feeding the cold Labrador Current.

In summer, the southern limit of the icebergs that become detached from the Arctic pack ice is essentially identical to the 50°F [10°C] isotherm for the month of July (which lies south of the Aleutians and Greenland), and even at the North Pole the temperature is only a little below freezing. In winter, however, temperatures are extremely low throughout the region. At the geographic pole it can be –40°F [–40°C], while in northeastern Siberia and interior Greenland, the temperature can even drop below –58°F [–50°C]. Diurnal temperature variations, however, are generally very small. East and southeast winds lash the frozen wastes for almost the entire year, slackening only in the summer months, when they are replaced by persistent fog caused by outliers of warm air masses from lower latitudes.

**Greenland.** Politically, Greenland (Kalaallit Nunaat) is a province of Denmark; since 1979 it has been granted substantial autonomy, with its own government and legislative assembly. Like the Færøe Islands, it is represented by two deputies in the Danish parliament. With an area of 839,780 mi<sup>2</sup> [2,175,600 km<sup>2</sup>], it had a population of 49,630 in the 1976 census, and an estimated 55,000 in 1991.

In physical terms, Greenland is considered the world's largest island; it consists of a large fragment of the North American continent, surrounded by a dense band of smaller islands, and lies between 59° 46' (Cape Farvel) and 89° 39' N latitude (Cape Morris Jesup), with a total length of almost 1900 mi [3000 km] and a width that often exceeds 600 mi [1000 km].

Geologically, it consists of a basement of ancient igneous rocks related to the structure of the Canadian Shield and partially covered by more recent (Mesozoic and Cenozoic) volcanic and sedimentary materials. Almost all of Greenland's land area (707,885 mi<sup>2</sup> [1,833,900 km<sup>2</sup>], or 84%) is covered by an ice cap averaging 5000 ft [1500 m] thick, with portions that are 6500 ft [2000 m] or even 10,000 ft [3000 m] deep. It is a relic of the ice sheet that covered much of North America and northern Eurasia until about 10,000–12,000 years ago. Below the ice cap, Greenland's surface topography has only modest relief, with the

exception of the marginal regions where craggy mountains often exceed 10,000 ft [3000 m] (Forel, 11,020 ft [3360 m]; Gunnbjørn Field, 12,135 ft [3700 m]).

Greenland's coastline is highly indented, and its coastal mountains (whose summits, emerging from the ice, are called *nunatak* by the Eskimos) are also extremely complex, in both cases because of the intense erosive action of the glaciers which descend from the edges of the ice cap into the sea, where their tongues fracture into huge blocks. These icebergs, floating on the cold ocean waters, are often transported far to the south by ocean currents such as the Labrador Current, constituting a serious hazard to navigation.

Climatic conditions in Greenland are distinctly polar, both because of its geographical position but most of all because of its thick covering of ice. The temperatures in the interior (which is also scourged by violent windstorms) are among the lowest found anywhere on Earth (–4°F [–20°C] on average, but with minimums as low as –58°F [–50°C]). The coastal regions, however, due in part to the influence of ocean waters (several branches of the warm Gulf Stream strike the eastern shores), have substantially higher temperatures, with average July temperatures several degrees above freezing. Precipitation, generally in the form of snow, is fairly sparse in the interior, but can exceed 40 in. [1000 mm] per year on the southern coast, with greater frequency in autumn and winter. The coasts are therefore covered with typical Arctic tundra vegetation, with mosses and lichens but also meadows and isolated groves of broadleaf trees (beeches), perhaps the remains of a much more extensive forest cover in earlier centuries, sufficient to justify the name given to this land by its first European discoverers.

Greenland's fauna, now rigorously protected, consists of large mammals such as polar bear, reindeer, and musk ox, as well as wolves, foxes, seals, and the like. The birdlife is fairly rich, and cod and salmon live in the coastal waters.

At present, Greenland is populated primarily by Eskimos; there has been considerable intermarrying with Europeans, but certain Eskimo groups have remained fairly intact, although their traditional ways of life have changed radically as a result of close contact with colonists and missionaries (generally Danes and other Scandinavians). Having abandoned their typical ice houses (igloos), they now live in modern villages located for the most part along the coast.

Economic activities consist principally of fishing (for cod and salmon) and hunting (seals), as well as livestock raising (reindeer and sheep). Greenland's mineral wealth, potentially extremely rich, has yet to be exploited on a large scale: coal, metal ores (lead and zinc), graphite, and cryolite are extracted.

Communications among the various coastal centers which include the capital, Nuuk, and Godhavn on the west coast; Julianehåb, Ammassalik, and Skjoldungen on the east coast; and with nearby Iceland and Denmark are provided by a coastal steamer service when the harbors are ice-free, and on a regular basis by airplanes and helicopters. The main international airport is Søndre Strømfjord on the west coast. A U.S. Air Force base is located at Thule (Dundas) on the northwestern tip of the island.

**The European Arctic islands.** The sector of the Arctic Ocean north of Europe—consisting of a spherical triangle with a base covering 90° of longitude (from 20° W to 70° E) and two

sides converging toward the North Pole from 70° N latitude—covers more than 1.5 million mi<sup>2</sup> [4 million km<sup>2</sup>] and contains a number of island groups that belong politically to Norway and to Russia, with the dividing line passing approximately through the 35° E meridian.

Norwegian dependencies include the small island of Jan Mayen (147 mi<sup>2</sup> [380 km<sup>2</sup>]) and the Svalbard archipelago (24,200 mi<sup>2</sup> [62,700 km<sup>2</sup>]). Located some 300 mi [500 km] northeast of Iceland and of volcanic origin, with activity evident as late as 1970 and mountains more than 6500 ft [2000 m] high (Beerenberg, 7,469 ft [2277 m]), Jan Mayen was discovered by Henry Hudson in 1608 and since 1929 has officially belonged to Norway (which in 1921 installed a radio and weather station on the island). A Loran station (1959) and Consol installation (1968) became operational there more recently.

The Svalbard archipelago, located 465 mi [750 km] north of Tromsø and lying between 74° 35' and 81° N latitude, comprises four large islands (Spitsbergen, 15,071 mi<sup>2</sup> [39,043 km<sup>2</sup>], Nord-aust Land, 5485 mi<sup>2</sup> [14,210 km<sup>2</sup>], Edge, 1942 mi<sup>2</sup> [5030 km<sup>2</sup>], and Barents, 513 mi<sup>2</sup> [1330 km<sup>2</sup>]) and several smaller ones, including Bjørn, or Bear Island (69 mi<sup>2</sup> [179 km<sup>2</sup>]), which is the southernmost.

Discovered by Willem Barents in 1596, the islands have a very complex geological makeup, with an ancient crystalline basement covered by sedimentary deposits in a continuous succession from the Paleozoic to the Cenozoic. The archipelago's morphology derives mostly from glacial and marine erosion. Even today, a large part of the islands is covered by permanent ice, and numerous glaciers flow directly into the sea within deep fjords that cut into the coastline.

Climatic conditions are subpolar, characterized by windy and extremely cold winters (the mean temperature in January is normally below -4°F [-20°C]) and by the "polar night" which lasts from October to February. Summers, on the other hand, during which the sun never sets from April to August, are much milder, due in large part to the influence of the Gulf Stream; the average July temperature is approximately 43°F [6°C], but extreme highs of 68°F [20°C] have been recorded.

The vegetation consists of the characteristic Arctic tundra, while the fauna is extremely varied, with polar bears, reindeer, musk ox, Arctic hare, and fox. There is a particularly rich avifauna, consisting mostly of migratory species. In January 1989, the population of the archipelago was 3,646, comprising 1,055 Norwegians, 2,579 Soviets, and 12 Poles. The rich coal deposits (with confirmed reserves of approximately 9 billion tons) are exploited jointly by the Russians and the Norwegians, who in 1987 extracted a total of more than 990,000 t of coal, all of which was exported. The administrative capital of the islands is Longyearbyen (pop. 1100), the principal air and maritime port as well as the location of a radio weather station. The Norwegian Polar Institute operates a research station at Ny Ålesund.

**The Russian and Siberian Arctic.** Russia's island possessions in the Arctic Ocean cover a little less than 78,000 mi<sup>2</sup> [200,000 km<sup>2</sup>]. The largest ones consist of the archipelagoes of Franz Josef Land (6215 mi<sup>2</sup> [16,100 km<sup>2</sup>]) and Novaya Zemlya (31,885 mi<sup>2</sup> [82,600 km<sup>2</sup>]) in the European sector, and Severnaya Zemlya (14,500 mi<sup>2</sup> [37,560 km<sup>2</sup>]) and New Siberia (14,820 mi<sup>2</sup> [38,400 km<sup>2</sup>]) in the Asiatic portion, as well as

smaller land areas such as Wrangel Island (2810 mi<sup>2</sup> [7280 km<sup>2</sup>]), the De Long Islands (300 mi<sup>2</sup> [780 km<sup>2</sup>]), Solitude Island (91 mi<sup>2</sup> [236 km<sup>2</sup>]), the Nordenskjöld archipelago, the Sergei Kirov Islands, and more. Many of these are uninhabited, and the others are populated by a total of a few thousand people, consisting of Russians (military personnel and staff of the various scientific and meteorological stations) and native peoples (Samoyeds and Eskimos).

The Franz Josef archipelago, located between 79° 45' and 82° 15' N latitude, consists of about a hundred islands made up of sedimentary and volcanic rocks covered by numerous glaciers. Maximum elevations occasionally exceed 2600 ft [800 m]. Partly covered by Arctic tundra, it is home to polar bears and to Arctic foxes and hares. Large numbers of seals live in the water. The islands were discovered in 1873 by an Austro-Hungarian expedition under Julius von Payer and Karl W. Sytch:

*August 30, 1873—a day I shall always remember—we were at 79° 43' N latitude and 59° 33' E longitude. It was afternoon. Leaning on the ship's rail, we watched the rolling clouds, pierced now and again by a ray of sunlight, when suddenly, looming in the distance to the northwest, like a wisp of vapor, was a line of craggy cliffs, which within a few minutes proved to be a magnificent Alpine landscape. At first we were as if bewitched, not trusting our eyes; then, once we were sure that this fortunate vision was not a fugitive mirage, we all burst into happy cries of: "Land! Land! Land at last!"*

*Suddenly there was not a single sick person on board; in an instant the prodigious news flashed around the ship, and everyone rushed up on deck to see with his own eyes that it was true.*

*Yes, it was indeed true. In a dream, as it were, and by the wandering whim of our slab of ice, we had become great explorers; all that was left was to determine the size and nature of this country that had magically emerged from the Arctic chaos.*

*Alas, we too were victims of that chaos, and we were unable, at least for the moment, to set foot on the land we had discovered; for anyone who had dared to leave the ice flow that was carrying us would have been separated from us and lost.*

*Nevertheless, in our first flush of enthusiasm, we began to run along the ice, as if we could reach the object of our curiosity.*

*Having reached the very end of our floating plateau, some four miles from the Tegetthoff, we were still about fifteen miles from the coast, which appeared closer. Unable to do more, we climbed up an iceberg to see if we could discern the interior of this mysterious land—its existence unsuspected by humans for thousands of years—that fate had presented to a handful of near-shipwrecked travelers, who hoped for nothing more than to see their homeland again, although perhaps the homeland considered them already lost. In honor of our sovereign, we immediately christened this section of coastline the "Land of the Emperor Franz Josef."*

The Novaya Zemlya archipelago, known to Russians and Norwegians since the Middle Ages and visited in the late 16th century by the Englishman Stephen Burrough (1556) and the Dutchman Willem Barents (1594), consists of two main islands that stretch out in a great arc and represent the northerly extension of the Urals system. Beyond the Kara Strait, they separate the Barents Sea, opposite the Sarmatian coast, from the Kara Sea which lies off Siberia, and which at this point is highly articulated by the deep estuaries of the Ob and the Yenisei. Like the Urals, the mountains of Novaya Zemlya (more than 4200 ft

[1300 m] and 5000 ft [1500 m] high) are formed of predominantly sedimentary rocks of Paleozoic date, folded and metamorphosed by the Caledonian and Hercynian orogenies.

The climate of these islands is distinctly polar (with a flora typical of the Arctic tundra), and the northern island is also covered with extensive ice fields. The terrestrial and marine fauna is extremely rich, represented by bear, reindeer, seal, wolf, whale, cod, and salmon. A few hundred Samoyeds live along the coast and support themselves by hunting and fishing; they are also present on the nearby islands of Kolguyev (1439 mi<sup>2</sup> [3728 km<sup>2</sup>]) and Vaygach (1306 mi<sup>2</sup> [3383 km<sup>2</sup>]).

Severnaya Zemlya was discovered even more recently (1913) by a Russian hydrographic expedition. The archipelago, made up of four main islands and several smaller ones, rises from the Siberian continental shelf and constitutes the continuation to the north (beyond Cape Chelyuskin) of the mountains which form the Taimyr peninsula, consisting of sedimentary rocks of Paleozoic age, partly covered by Quaternary deposits. Maximum elevations are less than 3300 ft [1000 m], and glaciers cover 40% of the islands' surface. Animal life is rather sparse, consisting of seals and polar bears.

North of the great Lena delta and east of Severnaya Zemlya is the Laptev Sea (named after Russian navigators who explored these waters in the early 18th century), which in turn is separated toward the east from the East Siberian Sea by another series of islands represented essentially by the New Siberian, Koteln'y, and Lyakhov groups. All are generally low-lying, although the latter two have modest hills; this is the result of extended erosion applied to crystalline and sedimentary materials of various dates. There are abundant Quaternary deposits containing a rich fossil macrofauna (including mammoths).

The archipelago was discovered in 1770 by a Russian merchant Lyakhov. Also part of the archipelago are the small De Long Islands, named for the commander of the ill-fated American expedition aboard the *Jeannette*, which was crushed in the ice in 1881. The last major island in the Russian Arctic is Wrangel, located just north of the Chukchi peninsula and also discovered by De Long. Although two Canadian expeditions landed on the island in 1921 and 1923, the island was definitively occupied by the Soviet Union in 1924. Consisting of granitic and sedimentary rocks, it has a maximum elevation of about 3000 ft [900 m] and an extremely harsh climate. Its coastal waters are rich in seals and walrus.

**The North American (Canadian) Arctic.** With the exception of Greenland, the islands of the North American Arctic are all part of Canada, specifically of the Northwest Territories administrative division, which lies above 60° N latitude. Its present population is about 55,000; most of these are Inuit (Esquimo), Aleut, American Indian, or of mixed race, who live by hunting, fishing, and selling furs and crafts. There are also a few Canadians of European descent who work at scientific and meteorological stations and airfields.

The land areas of the Canadian Arctic, often joined together by the polar pack ice, are delimited to the south by the waters of Hudson Bay, to the east by the Davis Strait and Baffin Bay, and to the west by the Beaufort Sea. This region has a total area of about 770,000 mi<sup>2</sup> [2 million km<sup>2</sup>], including the Melville and Boothia peninsulas.

These islands can be divided into three major sectors. The western sector has generally low-lying terrain and lies to the west of the Boothia peninsula, consisting of the large Victoria Island (81,930 mi<sup>2</sup> [212,200 km<sup>2</sup>]), the islands of Banks (23,230 mi<sup>2</sup> [60,166 km<sup>2</sup>]), King William (4955 mi<sup>2</sup> [12,833 km<sup>2</sup>]), Prince of Wales (12,830 mi<sup>2</sup> [33,230 km<sup>2</sup>]), and other smaller islands. The northeastern sector, dominated by Baffin Island (183,810 mi<sup>2</sup> [476,068 km<sup>2</sup>]) with its extremely complex coastline, mountains more than 6500 ft [2000 m] high, and numerous glaciers descending the eastern slope that is dissected by deep fjords, includes other islands such as Bylot (4200 mi<sup>2</sup> [10,878 km<sup>2</sup>]), Somerset (9,370 mi<sup>2</sup> [24,268 km<sup>2</sup>]), and Southampton (15,700 mi<sup>2</sup> [40,663 km<sup>2</sup>]). Finally, the northern sector consists, in addition to the narrow arms of the sea running along the 74th parallel (McClure Strait, Melville Sound, Barrow Strait, and Lancaster Sound), of the great Queen Elizabeth archipelago which includes the islands of Ellesmere (82,119 mi<sup>2</sup> [212,688 km<sup>2</sup>]) and Devon (20,861 mi<sup>2</sup> [54,030 km<sup>2</sup>]), both highly articulated and with mountains exceeding 6500 ft [2000 m], extensive ice caps, and glaciers plunging directly into the sea, and the smaller and generally flatter islands of Melville (16,369 mi<sup>2</sup> [42,396 km<sup>2</sup>]), Prince Patrick (6081 mi<sup>2</sup> [15,750 km<sup>2</sup>]), Axel Heiberg (15,779 mi<sup>2</sup> [40,868 km<sup>2</sup>]), and Bathurst (7069 mi<sup>2</sup> [19,707 km<sup>2</sup>]), near which lies the north magnetic pole.

In geological terms, the North American Arctic archipelago consists of extremely old crystalline rocks of Paleozoic and Precambrian date, often metamorphosed by folding and worn down by erosion. They belong to the American crustal plate, represented here by the Canadian Shield. Fairly low-lying, the region contains true mountain ranges only along its eastern edge, on Ellesmere and Baffin islands.

The dense hydrographic network, including many lake basins, also bears witness to the effects exerted on this region by the Pleistocene glaciations. The climate is typically polar, with very low temperatures throughout the year and absolute minimum values that can drop below -58°F [-50°C] in the winter. The vegetation is typical of the Arctic tundra, with mosses, lichens, anemones, saxifrages, and dwarf conifers and willows. The wild fauna is quite rich and varied, including seal, walrus, whales, and large terrestrial mammals (polar bear, musk ox, and caribou).

**Arctic exploration.** It is possible that the Arctic regions were visited, at least marginally, by solitary hunters or sailors at a very early period. It is known that Greenland was first inhabited in the 3rd millennium B.C. by Paleo-Eskimos from the Canadian North. During the Classical period, many were fascinated by the description of Thule, a place where the days are very long and the sea is entirely covered with ice, visited by the Greek explorer Pytheas in the 4th century B.C.

More concrete evidence, however, did not come until the Middle Ages: in his translation of Orosius' *History*, King Alfred the Great of England reported on the voyage made by the Norman navigator Othar in the second half of the 9th century, in which he rounded North Cape (Norway) and sailed into the White Sea to the mouths of the Dvina. At about the same time the adventurous travels of Vikings sailing northwest brought the Icelandic voyager Gunnbjörn within sight of the coast of Greenland; Erik the Red landed there in the second half of the 10th century and founded the colony of Brattelid (modern



Tungdiliafik). It was from Greenland that Erik's son Leif, and later Karlsefin (Thorfinn), succeeded in reaching the North American shores of Labrador and Newfoundland, and perhaps pushing as far as the mouth of the Hudson river (992–1020).

After the Viking era, it was not until the 14th century that another Nordic navigator, the Norwegian Powell Knutsson, revisited Greenland and perhaps North America. At the end of the 14th century the Venetian brothers Nicolò and Antonio Zeno reached Iceland and Greenland, and may have glimpsed the North American coast. Beginning in the 16th century, the exploration of the Arctic regions proceeded by land in northern Siberia, Alaska, and the Canadian North, and by sea with the search for the two putative connections to the Pacific and eastern Asia, the "Northwest Passage" around Greenland, and the "Northeast Passage" via Scandinavia.

The impetus to search for an ocean passage between the North Atlantic and the Pacific came from John and Sebastian Cabot, father and son. The latter mounted the English expedition which may have discovered Novaya Zemlya (1553), a feat repeated by Barents who penetrated as far as Spitsbergen (1597) in what are today the Svalbard Islands. In the meantime, exploration toward the northwest was being advanced by the English navigators Martin Frobisher (1576–78) and John Davis (1585–87); Davis sailed beyond 72° N latitude along the strait that divides Greenland from North America and now bears his name.

Voyages to the northwest continued during the 17th century with the English explorer Henry Hudson, who discovered the immense bay that now bears his name (1610) and the strait which defines the Labrador peninsula; and his fellow countryman William Baffin, who reached Lancaster Sound (1616) without realizing that it would lead to the goal he sought. His name has been given to the great mountainous island north of Labrador, and to the bay which separates it from Greenland.

The Russian advance toward the Siberian Arctic also continued with Semyon Dezhnev, who in 1648 sailed along the shore of the Arctic Ocean and reached the Kamchatka peninsula and the Bering Strait, thus proving the existence of a Northeast Passage. The Bering Strait itself, however, would not be crossed until its namesake, a Danish navigator, did so in the following century (1714) during a series of explorations supported by Czar Peter the Great, during which not only Vitus Bering himself, but also the Russian explorer Semyon Chelyuskin visited the northernmost tip of Eurasia (1742), now called Cape Chelyuskin. At the same time the Laptev brothers, Dmitry and Khariton, mapped the coast of the White Sea at the mouth of the Kolyma, after Nikolai Muravev and Pavlov (1735) had sailed through the Kara Sea and Malygin and Skuratov (1737) had explored the mouth of the Ob. During these expeditions the Russians also began to explore the Aleutians and Alaska, with the voyages of the German Georg Wilhelm Steller (1741–46). During this same period, the European presence in Greenland was reestablished with the colonization effort begun in 1721 by the Norwegian Protestant missionary Hans Egede, founder of the present-day capital, Nuuk, formerly Godthåb (1728).

In Alaska the Scottish explorer Alexander Mackenzie in 1789 traveled down the river which now bears his name to the shores of the Arctic Ocean, which were later also explored by the Englishman John Franklin (1820–25). At about the same time (1821–23), the Russian navigator Ferdinand Petrovich Wrangel

ventured onto the Siberian pack ice to 72° N latitude. The first quarter of the 20th century also saw the resumption, after a 200-year hiatus, of the search for the mythical Northwest Passage: Lancaster Sound was reached by John Ross of Scotland in 1818; believing it to be merely a fjord, he turned back, but the following year (1819) his second-in-command, William Edward Parry, pressed on for another 560 mi [900 km], reaching 110° W longitude (Melville Strait) and also determining the position of the north magnetic pole. Another attempt by Ross in 1829 was equally unsuccessful; Franklin himself then tried again in 1845–47, with tragic results. Then it was the turn of the Irish explorer Robert McClure, who chose the opposite direction, sailing around Alaska and reaching as far as Victoria Island (1850). The next year, during another attempt, McClure sailed into the strait which separates Melville Island from Banks Island and which today bears his name; in 1853 he was rescued, in desperate circumstances, by a relief expedition that had arrived from the east. This finally demonstrated the existence of a Northwest Passage by sea from Greenland, although it was by no means an easy route. The remains of the unfortunate Franklin expedition were discovered in 1859 by another Irishman, Francis McClintock, on King William Island.

Exploration of the Siberian Arctic continued under Alexander von Middendorf, who explored along the Taimyr peninsula (1843), and later (1868–70) under Maysel and Kherski, who surveyed the Kolyma, Yana, and Indigirka basins. The Siberian sector of the Arctic Ocean was also visited, in the second half of the 19th century, by the Austro-Hungarian expedition of Karl Weyprecht and Julius von Payer, who discovered Franz Josef Land (1872), and by the Norwegian Adolf Nordenskjöld (1875), who reached the mouth of the Yenisei, rounded Cape Chelyuskin, wintered at the mouth of the Lena (1878–79), and arrived at the Bering Strait the next summer.

In 1888, the first crossing of Greenland was made by a Norwegian, Fridtjof Nansen.

In the meantime, following Parry's expeditions in search of the Northwest Passage, the international scientific community had been developing the idea of trying to reach the North Pole, in part to determine whether any land existed north of Greenland. Parry himself had set out from Spitsbergen Island in 1827 and reached 82° N latitude. In 1853, the American Elisha Kane got as far as the latitude of the great Humboldt glacier on the northwest coast of Greenland (80° N), and in 1861 his second-in-command, Isaac Hayes, passed beyond 81° N latitude and confirmed the existence of an ocean at the polar cap. Kane made numerous important scientific observations during his expedition, and also paid close attention to the customs and practices of the Eskimo population:

*It is almost as difficult to trace back the customs of the Smith's Sound Esquimaux as it is to describe their religious faith. They are a declining—almost an obsolete—people, "toto orbe divisos," and too much engaged with the necessities of the present to cherish memorials of the past. It was otherwise with those whom we met in the more southern settlements. These are now for the most part concentrated about the Danish posts, in very different circumstances, physical as well as moral, from their brethren of the North....*

*The walrus supplies the staple food of the Rensselaer Bay Esquimaux throughout the greater part of the year. To the south*

as far as Murchison Channel, the seal, unicorn, and white whale alternate at their appropriate seasons; but in Smith's Sound these last are accidental rather than sustained hunts.

The manner of hunting the walrus depends in a considerable degree on the season of the year. In the fall, when the pack is but partially closed, they are found in numbers, hanging around the neutral region of mixed ice and water, and, as this becomes solid with the advance of winter, following it more and more to the south.

The Esquimaux approach them then over the young ice, and assail them in cracks and holes with nalgait and line. This fishery, as the season grows colder, darker, and more tempestuous, is fearfully hazardous....

The huts—those poor, miserable, snow-covered dens - are now scenes of life and activity. Stacks of jointed meat are piled upon the ice-foot; the women are stretching the hide for sole-leather, and the men cutting out a reserve of harpoon-lines for the winter....

On the day of my arrival, four walrus were killed at Etah, and no doubt many more by Kalutak at Peteravik. The quantity of beef which is thus gained during a season of plenty, one might suppose, should put them beyond winter want.... The poor creatures are not idle: they hunt indomitably, without the loss of a day. When the storms prevent the use of the sledge, they still work in stowing away the carcasses of previous hunts. An excavation is made either on the mainland, or, what is preferred, upon an island inaccessible to foxes, and the jointed meat is stacked inside and covered with heavy stones....

By their ancient laws all share with all; and, as they migrate in numbers as their necessities prompt, the tax on each particular settlement is excessive. The quantity which the members of a family consume, exorbitant as it seems to a stranger, is rather a necessity of their peculiar life and organization than the result of inconsiderate gluttony.

In 1871 the American journalist Charles Hall then reached the 82nd parallel, while the British explorer Albert Markham, following an expedition under Sir George Nares, penetrated to 83° 20' N latitude in 1876; in 1882 the Americans Lockwood and Brainard (on the heels of the ill-fated expedition of Adolphus Greely, who attempted to establish the first permanent scientific outpost in Ellesmere Land) reached 83° 24' N. The race for the Pole now seemed more of a sporting event than a simple matter of scientific exploration. Meanwhile, the tragic outcome of the expedition led by the American George De Long (1879), the wreckage of which was carried by ocean currents to the east coast of Greenland, had convinced Nansen to utilize those same currents to approach the Pole: having drifted with the pack ice from the Kara Sea (1893) on board the *Frâm*, he abandoned the ship 16 months later and continued by sled; in 1895 he became the first to reach 86° 14' N latitude.

The 19th century ended with the foolhardy and tragic attempt by the Swede Salomon Andrée to reach the Pole by balloon (1897), and with the land expedition of the Duke d'Abruzzi, during which Umberto Cagni (1900) halted at 86° 34' N latitude, a new record in the race toward the Pole. The goal may have been attained by the Americans Frederick Cook (1908) and Robert Peary (1909), but there is no irrefutable proof that they actually reached their destination. In the meantime, exploration of the Siberian Arctic islands continued with the discovery (1913–14) of Severnaya Zemlya by the Russian Boris Vilkitsky, while the exploration of Greenland was pursued first by Ludvig Mylius-

Erichsen of Denmark (1906), then by his fellow Danes Knud Rasmussen and Lauge Koch, who organized the famous Thule Expeditions (1912–21). Other scientific and exploratory expeditions in Greenland were undertaken in the 1920s and 1930s by Koch, by the German geophysicist Alfred Wegener (author of the theory of continental drift), and by the Italian Leonardo Bonzi (1934), and in the 1940s and 1950s by Paul Émile Victor of France.

In the course of his expeditions, Wegener succeeded in establishing the Eismitte geophysical station at the center of Greenland, where he later died (1931) during a daring trek undertaken under impossible conditions. In the American Arctic, during the early part of the century (1903–06) the Norwegian explorer Roald Amundsen was the first to travel, in a small ship, from the Beaufort Sea to the Atlantic, through the labyrinth of islands dotting the Far North. In 1944 the Canadian ship *Saint-Roch* completed the Northwest Passage in a single season, while in 1969 the ice-breaking supertanker *Manhattan* arrived at the harbor in Prudhoe Bay, in Alaska, less than a month after leaving Philadelphia. In addition, regular connections all along the Siberian Arctic coast were established following the political annexation of all the lands located between the Pole and the meridians of 32° 04' and 168° 49' E of Greenwich, promulgated in a decree of the Soviet government in 1926; this was made possible, for several months out of the year, by the use of powerful icebreakers. More recently, the French polar ship *Astrolabe* traveled the entire Northeast Passage in the summer of 1991, leaving the French port of Le Havre and arriving at Hakodate in Japan a little over a month later.

After Andrée's attempt, efforts to reach the Pole by air resumed: in 1923 the Norwegian Roald Amundsen tried with two seaplanes, but without success. It was not until 1926 that the American Richard Evelyn Byrd managed to fly over it in his aircraft, followed two days later by the dirigible *Norge* piloted by Amundsen and the Italian Umberto Nobile. The latter returned to the Pole two years later with the dirigible *Italia*, but it crashed on the return journey.

The first attempt to reach the Pole underwater was made in 1931 by the Australian Sir George Hubert Wilkins; the feat was not accomplished until 1958, by the American nuclear-powered submarine *Nautilus*. The development of motorized transport made it easier to reach the Pole over land, as demonstrated by the expeditions of Ralph Plaisted (1968) and Guido Monzino (1972); in 1977 the Soviet icebreaker *Arktika* opened a sea route. Meanwhile, in 1969 the Pole had been reached again over land by the British expedition under Wally Herbert, who used traditional dogsleds; setting out from Cape Barrow in Alaska, he stopped 25 mi [40 km] north of the Svalbard Islands.

The tragedy of the dirigible *Italia* is described by Giotto Dainelli in his book *La gara verso il Polo Nord* [The race for the North Pole]:

*From Baja del Re the Italia set course west-northwest, under generally calm skies.... It was a truly amazing journey: a little after midnight on the 24th of May, 1928, they were over the Pole; from the northernmost tip of Greenland they had covered over 400 mi [700 km] in only about 6 hours, an average speed of 64 mph [103 km/h], which was almost miraculous, especially after the adverse weather that had so often accompanied the*



*expedition since the crossing of Germany toward Stolp... The Italia circled for a while around the imaginary point representing the top of the world, and dropped an Italian flag, the banner of the city of Milan, and a wooden cross blessed by the Pope; then it regained altitude back to 3,300 ft [1,000 m], and at 2:30 a.m. on that same day set off south along the 25th meridian east of Greenwich. The air was freezing cold and gray, and the strong wind occasionally blew gusts of snow against the airship.*

*It was this south wind that had facilitated the journey toward the Pole but now impeded their return. More precisely, it blew from the southwest, so that it not only slowed down their flight but also caused them to drift eastward, and all this change in speed and drift could not be measured due to the fog and clouds. The snow, settling all over the dirigible and turning into ice, weighed it down and once again caused the propeller blades to hurl out dangerous fragments that struck the envelope. As happy and triumphant as they had felt over the two previous days, they now felt equally dejected and even fearful, although their course was bringing them—albeit irregularly—closer to Baja del Re. Then there was the incident of a seized engine; and there also must have been a loss of gas from the stern, as later events suggested. At a certain point, to resolve the terrifying uncertainty with regard to the dirigible's position, it was brought to an altitude of 3,000 ft [900 m], above the fog and in full sunlight, and the crew found they were about 45 miles northeast of the Ross Islands, or about 180 miles from Baja del Re. This meant only another few hours of flying to reach their home base and safety. The airship was brought even further down, to an altitude of 1,000 ft [300 m]. This was perhaps a mistake, because the moisture conditions there once again caused increased formation of ice on the envelope, and the greater weight of the dirigible rapidly became worrisome. It descended at an ever-increasing rate, becoming more and more stern-heavy, perhaps because of a gas leak as already mentioned. The few actions taken in this difficult situation were unavailing; at 10:33 on that fateful day, May 25, the airship struck at tremendous speed, rearing nose-up, against the pack ice bristling with hummocks and peaks; the terrific impact jarred the gondola loose, and it disintegrated along with everyone and everything that it contained.*

## THE ANTARCTIC

A remote, inaccessible, and forbidding environment, Antarctica, a continent representing 10% of the world's land area, was still virtually unknown a century ago. Not until the early 1900s did a few bands of explorers penetrate its interior in the race to reach the South Pole. Humans did not return to Antarctica until fifty years later, and even then in very small numbers compared to the multitudes inhabiting the other continents.

The Antarctic continent covers almost 5.5 million mi<sup>2</sup> [14 million km<sup>2</sup>], including the island areas and ice shelves, with a diameter of about 2,500 mi [4,000 km] and an approximately circular outline interrupted by the two great embayments of the Ross and Weddell Seas, which divide two geomorphologically distinct continental masses: East and West Antarctica. Antarctica is the most isolated of the continents, lying 590 mi [950 km] from the tip of South America, 1,425 mi [2,300 km] from Tasmania, 1,365 mi [2,200 km] from New Zealand, and 2,230 mi [3,600 km] from Africa.

Several archipelagoes and minor islands dot the vastness of

the Antarctic (or Southern) Ocean in the sub-Antarctic zone. Moving east from the Atlantic sector, they are the Falklands (Malvinas) and South Georgia (the only inhabited group); the South Sandwich Islands; the South Orkneys; Bouvet Island; Crozet, Marion, and Prince Edward islands; the Kerguelens; and Heard, Macquarie, and Campbell islands. Most of these remote and desolate islands are the volcanic tips of the ocean ridges which surround Antarctica.

**Physical and geological description.** The principal continental mass of Antarctica lies south of the Atlantic, Africa, India, and Australia, and constitutes East Antarctica. Beneath the ice cap which covers it, the rocky surface of East Antarctica barely rises above sea level. Its crust consists of a Precambrian metamorphic and crystalline basement and an overlying sedimentary and volcanic covering dating from the upper Paleozoic and lower Mesozoic, similar to the formations constituting the other southern continents. The Transantarctic Mountains lie along the edge of East Antarctica, rising up 14,860 ft [4,530 m] and extending for almost 2,500 mi [4,000 km]; at its feet two wide epicontinental basins open up: the Ross Sea, which lies along the Pacific sector, and the Weddell Sea facing the Atlantic.

West Antarctica, smaller and with much more vigorous relief, faces the Pacific sector; in reality, it is a complex archipelago comprising a number of small crustal fragments of various ages and compositions, including the Ellsworth Mountains which top out at 16,860 ft [5,140 m] on Mt. Vinson, and the huge crustal block of Marie Byrd Land. West Antarctica extends northward into the Antarctic Peninsula, which represents the southern extension of the Andes Mountains; direct connection between the two was broken 23 million years ago by the intrusion of a southern Pacific crustal plate. This created what is now the Drake Passage; today the Antarctic Peninsula and South America are structurally linked by the arc of the South Sandwich Islands. West Antarctica has been an active continental margin throughout the Mesozoic and Cenozoic, as witnessed by widespread volcanic activity.

Two hundred thirty million years ago, Antarctica represented the central part of the now-dismembered supercontinent called Gondwanaland, whose constituent blocks slowly moved apart to form the southern continents. East Antarctica moved into its polar position about 80 million years ago, when it was still attached to Australia; the two continents moved apart some 55 million years ago.

Recent oceanographic explorations have confirmed the individuality and physical continuity of the Antarctic Ocean, which covers 12 million mi<sup>2</sup> [30 million km<sup>2</sup>] south of the polar front (or Antarctic Convergence). This irregular, variable band located between latitudes 52° and 55° S is a few dozen miles wide and extends uninterruptedly around the polar seas. Along the polar front, the cold Antarctic surface waters plunge below the warmer sub-Antarctic water, marking the boundary of the Antarctic Ocean, differentiated from the other oceans by the distribution and dynamics of its water masses, and because its surface freezes over seasonally to form the south polar ice pack.

The first traces of continental glaciers in Antarctica date back almost 50 million years, although fossils indicate that the climate at this period was still generally temperate. A general cooling trend set in about 38 million years ago, but great accumulations

of ice extended more and more frequently over the continent during the last 20 million years, after the Drake Passage had opened up and created one continuous Southern Ocean. Since then an uninterrupted circumpolar current has flowed from west to east through the Southern Ocean, isolating Antarctic waters and keeping them cold. The oceanic circulation around Antarctica initiated a positive-feedback process by which the polar regions, and especially Antarctica, now act as the "cold sinks" of the thermodynamic engine represented by the atmosphere and the global oceans; a cold climate has persisted in these regions through geological time, allowing ice caps to form on a continental scale.

The Antarctic ice cap has covered the continent repeatedly: about 10 million years ago it had approximately its present dimensions, but 4.5 million years ago it was larger still, and even the sub-Antarctic islands were covered with small ice caps.

The present-day ice cap covers the entire continent and joins the two Antarctic continents together. Less than 2% of Antarctica's territory is free of ice; often only the highest rocky peaks, or "nunataks," emerge from the ice, like islands in a frozen sea. The average thickness of the cap is over 6500 ft [2000 m] and it is more than 14,500 ft [4500 m] thick in some places. In the basins of West Antarctica, the base of the ice cap may be well below sea level. The presence of the ice cap gives the continent an average elevation of 7500 ft [2300 m], the highest on Earth.

The volume of ice in the Antarctic cap is almost 12 million mi<sup>3</sup> [30 million km<sup>3</sup>], pressing down on the continental crust with a weight of almost a billion tons. The weight of the ice cap has pushed the continent about 2000 ft [600 m] into the asthenosphere, with the result that the submerged continental shelves around Antarctica are also very deep, lying at 1650–2300 ft [500–700 m] below sea level rather than the 650 ft [200 m] found around the other continents. The ice cap that has accumulated over the course of hundreds of thousands of years represents 91% of the terrestrial ice on Earth, and 68% of its fresh water; it is therefore the Antarctic's most important potential natural resource.

The masses of ice flow slowly from the center of the continent toward its edges, where their movement accelerates to a speed of a few hundred yards a year. Glaciers with a relatively rapid flow rate often pass through the stationary ice of the cap itself. When the glaciers reach the coast, they break into icebergs which drift through the Southern Ocean for hundreds or thousands of years.

The inland and marginal seas are the site of the great fluctuating ice sheets that are fed by the main glacial flows off the cap; it has been demonstrated that ice sheets cannot become established over the deep ocean. The Ross and Weddell sheets extend over hundreds of thousands of square miles of flatness; their thickness varies from 2600 to 3600 ft [800–1100 m] at the center to 650–1000 ft [200–300 m] at the edges, where they meet the sea as tall vertical ice cliffs. These are the Great Barriers which awed the first explorers. Tabular icebergs break off from the ice shelves in dimensions that can range up to 60 miles [100 km] and drafts of up to 800 ft [250 m]; they are characteristic of the marine landscape of the Southern Ocean. It has been estimated on the basis of satellite observations that about a hundred thousand icebergs with dimensions exceeding 1000 ft [300 m] are drifting in the Antarctic polar seas.

The pack ice forms between February and December, as huge areas of the ocean's surface freeze. The seasonal pack ice of the Southern Ocean is one of the most magnificent natural phenomena visible on the Earth as seen from space; for much of the year it locks the continent in a belt 250–800 mi [400–1300 km] wide, isolating it completely. In September the pack ice covers 8 million mi<sup>2</sup> [20 million km<sup>2</sup>] of the ocean's surface, while during the brief summer it still covers at least 1 million mi<sup>2</sup> [3 million km<sup>2</sup>].

**Climate, flora, and fauna.** The climatic characteristics of the Antarctic continent are determined by its polar position and its isolation. Day and night are each months long at certain times of the year, while a crepuscular half-light predominates at other times.

Antarctica is the coldest continent: on the endless stretches of ice in the central highlands, average temperatures are around –85°F [–65°C] between April and September, rising to about 22°F [–30°C] between December and February. The low temperatures of the interior result from a number of factors, including the considerable elevation above sea level, the high reflectivity of the ice (which sends much of the incident solar radiation back into space), and a persistent seasonal high-pressure area called the "winter polar vortex." Average summer temperatures along the coasts are just below freezing, and drop to –22°F [–30°C] for the rest of the year.

Because of the very low ground temperatures, even the rocky subsoil is permanently frozen for thousands of feet; this phenomenon is known as permafrost. Water in the liquid state is a rare and ephemeral substance. Because the temperature is lower at the surface than in the atmosphere just above, extremely violent cold winds form, descending by gravity from the center of the ice cap toward the edges of the continent: these katabatic winds, with gusts that can exceed 180 mph [300 km/h], continually lash the great geomorphological basins.

In the continental interior, precipitation (in the form of snow, of course) is only about 2 in. [50 mm] per year, a level which makes Antarctica one of the largest deserts on Earth, even though snowfall increases substantially along the coasts. Along the margins of the Antarctic Peninsula, milder temperatures and more frequent precipitation characterize a cold maritime climate. The climate of the archipelagoes north of the peninsula, and of the remote sub-Antarctic islands is even less harsh.

The "sub-Antarctic" region is the term applied to the broad band of the Southern Ocean in which average temperatures in the warmest month remain below 50°F [10°C]. This band is located south of the polar front and north of the maximum pack ice limit. The sub-Antarctic seas are the stormiest on Earth; between 40° and 60° S latitude, an uninterrupted cyclonic circulation blows over the ocean from west to east. Throughout this area, storms follow one another at a rate of one every 5–7 days, each lasting 3–4 days; the continuous disturbances represent another climatic barrier blocking access to the continent.

Life has succeeded in adapting appropriately to the climatic conditions of the Antarctic region. Terrestrial biological ecosystems are poor, isolated, and therefore geographically diverse, while the marine systems are much richer and better developed.

The sub-Antarctic islands are home to an endemic flora similar to that of the tundra, consisting of a few species of vascular plants and numerous forms of more primitive plants. The fauna

is limited to invertebrates, with the exception of four species of seasonal birds in the two larger archipelagoes; there are no other endemic terrestrial vertebrates either in Antarctica or on the islands. The higher animals (seals, penguins, birds) that inhabit the coasts during the breeding season are all essentially maritime.

The immature soils of the Antarctic coasts have been colonized by a sparse vegetation of lichens, mosses, and liverworts. Terrestrial organisms become rarer and more primitive as one moves toward the rare unglaciated interior areas. A few forms of life have managed to colonize even the most extreme environments by means of enormously risky adaptations: the small insects of the unglaciated coastal regions hibernate for 320 days a year, while endolithic algae and bacteria exploit the favorable microclimate that exists in tiny interstices beneath the surface of the rocks, where solar summer heat and dissolved salts allow traces of liquid water to exist.

The "dry valleys" of the Transantarctic Mountains are considered by students of extraterrestrial environments to be the earthy environment potentially most similar to that of other planets.

Life in the Southern Ocean and the Antarctic seas is very rich and diverse. The benthic ecosystems of the ocean depths are not well known since they are so difficult to observe but rich communities of coelenterates, arthropods, mollusks, echinidae, and fish have been seen at depths accessible to photography. Benthic ecosystems are differentiated in terms of depth and geographical region; it is estimated that their biomass represents 60% of the total marine biomass of the Southern Ocean.

A unique and extremely rich pelagic marine ecosystem has developed in the pack ice zone; occupying the entire ocean around Antarctica with essentially no geographic differentiation, it is perhaps the most extensive on Earth. The foundation of the system is the single-celled algae which synthesize organic material from solar energy; they represent the greatest productivity, and exist in quantities grossly estimated at between 600 and 1 billion tons. The development of these algae is linked to the state of the pack ice, and resumes each year as sunlight returns and the sea ice melts, allowing them to propagate gradually southward.

The algae are eaten by small herbivorous planktonic crustaceans known collectively as "krill." By far the most common krill species is the shrimplike *Euphausia superba*, followed by a dozen other species. Krill migrate slowly in shoals of inconceivable numbers, and represent much of the biomass of the pelagic marine fauna. In 1981 an oceanographic ship in the Weddell Sea crossed a shoal of krill that turned the sea red for a dozen miles, and was estimated to consist of 2.5 million tons of animals.

A carnivorous plankton, predominantly made up of copepods, has developed in the sub-Antarctic zone alongside the herbivores. In the pack ice zone, krill make up the central and fundamental link in the food chain: every higher animal is a direct or indirect predator of krill, and is absolutely dependent on them. In no other ecosystem is the food chain so short and so dependent on this intermediate link, which is why biologists worry that the entire ecosystem might be threatened by indiscriminate industrial-scale harvesting of krill.

The principal predators of the krill themselves are the cephalopods (squid and others), fish, seabirds, penguins, and several seals, including the widespread crab-eating seal. Baleen whales migrate every summer from tropical to polar seas in order to feed on krill; the spacing of the baleens in various whale species

differs depending on the particular krills that constitute their specialized diet. By the end of the polar season, a whale may have increased its weight by 60%. Other marine species (fish, birds, leopard seals, killer whales, and other toothed whales) depend indirectly but no less absolutely on krill, since they feed on species which eat them.

The surface marine fauna of the Antarctic region has been known ever since the first explorations in the late 1700s, since during the breeding season these species, which spend the rest of the year dispersed over the vast Southern Ocean, concentrate in vast numbers on the rare beaches and along the coasts.

Birds represent a biomass of at least half a million tons, with numbers probably exceeding 240 million. There are more than 20 million penguins; one Antarctic species with an extraordinary environmental adaptation strategy is the emperor penguin (*Aptenodytes forsteri*), which stands and broods a single egg on top of its feet all through the icy polar winter. The Adelie penguin (*Pygoscelis adeliae*) is the most common. Other Antarctic seabirds include petrels, albatross, gulls, and cormorants.

Antarctic and sub-Antarctic seals are represented by six species, of which the crab-eating seal is estimated to number 12-15 million individuals. This species alone constitutes 80% of the world's entire pinniped biomass. Two strictly Antarctic species, the Weddell seal and Ross seal, are uncommon; the sub-Antarctic species (elephant seal and fur seal) are familiar from the commercial exploitation they suffered in the past.

Southern whales, seasonal migrants to Antarctic waters, are represented by seven baleen species and eight species of toothed whales. Almost all southern whale populations have been severely reduced by whaling.

**Antarctic exploration.** The Antarctic, the last continent to be discovered, has only been partly explored and is the only one not colonized by humans.

For the ancient Greeks, a southern continent had to exist by philosophical necessity—in their cosmology based on order and equilibrium—to balance the masses of the boreal continents. For medieval Christians, a southern landmass could not exist by theological preclusion: a land whose population was inaccessible to redemption could not have been created. At the time of the great explorations of the 16th and 17th centuries, many maps recorded a hypothetical southern continent that was enormous but had never in fact been seen (*Terra Australis incognita*).

Humans had never lived in Antarctica prior to the explorations of the 19th century, and it is improbable that they ever visited the continent accidentally. Among the native populations of the Southern Hemisphere, the inhabitants of Tierra del Fuego did not have the capability of sailing across the Drake Passage (a difficult feat even today); the Polynesians have legends describing icebergs, which could indeed have been swept far to the north, up to the 40th parallel, by ocean currents.

The sub-Antarctic seas were visited by Spanish and Portuguese navigators in the late 1500s, when several sub-Antarctic islands, including the South Shetlands, were discovered. The first systematic exploration of these polar waters, however, was conducted by the Englishman James Cook, who between 1772 and 1775 circumnavigated Antarctica twice, encountered the pack ice and tried to penetrate it, and finally succeeded in passing beyond the Antarctic Circle to a latitude of 71° S. At about

the same time, the French navigator Yves-Joseph de Kerguelen-Trémarec sailed in search of southern lands and discovered the islands which now bear his name.

Cook's geographical explorations were followed by commercial explorations by seal hunters, who by the mid-19th century had discovered all the sub-Antarctic islands, the Antarctic Peninsula (visited for the first time in 1814 by the Argentinian admiral Guillermo Brown), and the archipelagoes around it. In 1820 the American seal hunter Nathaniel Palmer, the English captain Edward Bransfield, and the Russian admiral Fabien Gottlieb von Bellingshausen came within sight of the peninsula. Twenty years later, three other important geographical expeditions began to survey and map the coasts of the continent: they were led by James Clark Ross (Great Britain), Jules-Sébastien-César Dumont d'Urville (France), and Charles Wilkes (United States). Geographical exploration of the Antarctic coastline stagnated in the second half of the 19th century, but once the southern whales had been discovered, the whaling fleets continued to ply Antarctic waters.

The period between the end of the 19th century and World War I is called the "heroic age" of Antarctic exploration, with numerous expeditions organized by many countries, including Belgium, Norway, Germany, Sweden, Great Britain, France, Japan, and Australia. The attempts to penetrate the ice-covered interior of the continent and reach the South Pole were so agonizing as to amply justify the term "heroic" applied by historians.

The first brief recorded landing on the coast of East Antarctica did not occur until 1895. In 1899 the Belgian Adrien de Gerlache de Gomery was forced to spend the winter trapped in the Antarctic ice; in 1900 the Norwegian Carsten E. Borchgrevink spent the first winter on the continent, at Cape Adare in Victoria Land. The British explored Antarctica with expeditions under Robert F. Scott, William Bruce, and Ernest Shackleton; the French under commander Jean-Baptiste Charcot; the Germans with Erich Drygalski and Willem Filchner; the Swedes with Nils Otto Nordenskjöld; the Norwegians with Roald Amundsen; the Japanese with Lieutenant Choku Shiraze; and the Australians with Douglas Mawson. Several explorers perished among the polar ice. The race to reach the South Pole was begun by the Norwegian Roald Amundsen, who was aiming solely to reach that geographic goal, and by Robert Scott of Great Britain, who not only reached the Pole but also undertook an ambitious and diverse program of scientific research. Two of his teams explored North Victoria Land and the Transantarctic Mountains.

In 1911 Amundsen and Scott wintered in the Ross Sea, the former in Bay of Whales and the latter on Ross Island; in spring they each set out toward the South Pole. Amundsen used dogsleds, while Scott traveled with horses (which proved unsuitable), then dog teams (in insufficient numbers), and finally a human hauling party. On December 14, 1911, Amundsen reached the Pole, where he left a tent and a mocking letter to Scott. The British group, gradually reduced in numbers and beset by difficulties, reached the Pole on January 25, 1912. Scott and his four companions died on the return trip; the last three perished, pinned down by a blizzard, only 10 mi [17 km] from a food cache that would have saved their lives. The last words written in Scott's journal, in what had become a shaky hand, date from March 29.

In his book *Captain Scott: The Full Story*, Harry Ludlam passes on Scott's last emotional message to his compatriots:

*The causes of the disaster are not due to faulty organisation, but to misfortune in all risks which had to be undertaken....*

*We fought these untoward events with a will and conquered, but it cut into our provision reserve....*

*On the summit in lat 85 deg/86 deg we had -20 deg, -30 deg ... in the day, -47 deg at night pretty regularly, with continuous head wind during our day marches. It is clear that these circumstances come on very suddenly, and our wreck is certainly due to this sudden advent of severe weather, which does not seem to have any satisfactory cause. I do not think human beings ever came through such a month as we have come through, and we should have got through in spite of the weather but for the sickening of a second companion, Captain Oates, and a shortage of fuel in our depots for which I cannot account, and finally, but for the storm which has fallen on us within 11 miles of the depot at which we hoped to secure our final supplies.*

*Surely misfortune could scarcely have exceeded this last blow. We arrived within 11 miles of our old One Ton Camp with fuel for one last meal and food for two days. For four days we have been unable to leave the tent—the gale howling about us. We are weak, writing is difficult, but for my own sake I do not regret this journey, which has shown that Englishmen can endure hardships, help one another, and meet death with as great a fortitude as ever in the past. We took risks, we knew we took them; things have come out against us, and therefore we have no cause for complaint, but bow to the will of Providence, determined still to do our best to the last....*

*Had we lived, I should have had a tale to tell of the hardihood, endurance, and courage of my companions which would have stirred the heart of every Englishman. These rough notes and our dead bodies must tell the tale, but surely, surely, a great rich country like ours will see that those who are dependent on us are properly provided for.*

Between the two world wars, Antarctic exploration was resumed by a number of countries. U.S. explorers, among them Admiral Richard Byrd, were now routinely making use of aircraft, as were the Germans and Australians. On the eve of World War II both the British and Americans had military bases in Antarctica, but unlike those in the sub-Antarctic region, they were not used during the conflict.

In the first decade after World War II, the United States, the Soviet Union, Australia, France, Argentina, and Chile all established scientific or strategic bases and resumed exploration, in some cases with massive resources: the continental-scale American campaign of 1946–47 involved 4700 people. This period marks the beginning of the contemporary era in the brief human history of Antarctica, an age of both science and strategic maneuvering. The largest exploratory operation conducted in the Antarctic was not national, but international, undertaken jointly by 13 countries as part of the International Geophysical Year of 1957–58. In 1958 Silvio Zavatti gave this description in his *L'esplorazione dell'Antartide* [Antarctic exploration]:

*With the most recent expeditions, the nature of Antarctic exploration had changed decisively and definitively, both in terms of aims—focusing mostly on science, specifically nature and geophysics, rather than topography—and with regard to the methods used to achieve them—for the most part technological*

*and mechanical. The nature had therefore changed, but the pace had also intensified, as is easily realized from the existence of so many concurrent expeditions, or missions, organized by nations from essentially every continent. As others have mentioned on numerous occasions, reasons other than purely scientific ones certainly increased the enthusiasm for this undoubtedly noble international competition.*

*In the last few years this contest has become even more intense, and it will continue with the same intensity at least for all of 1958, since as everyone knows we are in the midst of the "International Geophysical Year," which has been joined by some forty nations and which—with much greater consensus and much more generous financial contributions—is intended to support simultaneous, planned research in the field of geophysics in its broadest sense.*

*Projects during the International Geophysical Year include, for example, oceanographic investigations in the waters all around Antarctica, designed in particular to study ocean circulation and the moving boundary between polar and temperate water, not to mention regular soundings to determine the location and size of the continental shelf, and sampling to retrieve sediments from the ocean floor. Also part of the program, and of considerable importance, are studies of the Earth's magnetism, and the location of the south magnetic pole and its movements. There will also be gravimetric observations and research on the seismic properties of this great continent, where movements of adjacent plates of the Earth's crust are believed to have occurred even in fairly recent geological time.*

This undertaking was a seminal one in terms of its effects on the geopolitical face of Antarctica, and remains unequalled for the breadth of its objectives and the magnitude of the commitment. Thousands of people, predominantly scientists, took part; some 40 bases and scientific observatories were built. For the first time, camps were set up on the glaciers of the interior highlands, including an American station at the South Pole and a Soviet one at the "pole of relative inaccessibility." A historic transcontinental traverse was made, covering 2800 mi [4500 km] with trains of tractors and sleds.

**Human settlement.** The hostile environment has consistently restricted a human presence in Antarctica, and still imposes severe limitations despite the use of the latest technological resources, which are useful but costly. The pack ice impedes navigation in winter, but even in summer a number of ships have been lost to storms or collision with icebergs. The violent and sudden blizzards are capable of immobilizing travelers on foot or on sleds, as well as surface vehicles and aircraft. Dehydration, snow blindness, altitude sickness, and frostbite lie in wait for anyone unprepared for this glacial environment. Enforced communal living in tight spaces at winter bases, isolated for ten months of the year in the polar twilight and night, demands suitable psychological adaptation.

Human presence has therefore always been minimal. The first base with a permanent population (albeit of only a few individuals), the weather station on the sub-Antarctic Laurie Island, dates back to 1904. For a few years around 1929, whaling stations gave South Georgia a winter population of about 200. Prior to the 1950s, some small groups wintered over sporadically at a few scattered bases, like the famous Little America set up on the Ross Platform ice. With the International Geophysical Year of

1957, Antarctica's winter population jumped from a few dozen people to 900, a figure at which it has remained since then.

The summer population of Antarctica's bases is presently 4000–5000 persons, who remain for an average of two to three months; adding to this number are the crews of the ships, most of them fishing vessels, that sail the Southern Ocean. Since the 1980s, a few thousand tourists have spent a week or two each summer south of the 60th parallel.

In 1974 two countries, Argentina and Chile, undertook a colonization effort, settling a few family groups on the Antarctic Peninsula where the climate is less hostile. These small settlements—immensely costly and neither spontaneous nor self-sustaining—are of great symbolic value to their respective governments.

Aside from this experiment, the small human settlements of Antarctica possess demographic characteristics typical of frontier regions. These intrusive, temporary populations are neither stable, complete, nor balanced: each person's stay is almost always limited to a few months, rarely more than a year; men predominate, mostly young to middle-aged, professionally specialized, and variously motivated to undertake an unusual but impermanent experiment. As in every population with a very rapid turnover, there is no shortage of adventurers.

Political and strategic conditions are such that the fragile human population of Antarctica is not united. All the bases have a national affiliation; they are generally isolated from one another, and linked only to the parent country by extremely long supply lines.

Antarctica's settlements, almost all of them scientific stations or camps, constitute minuscule human outposts in an immense glacial expanse essentially devoid of other forms of life. An Antarctic base of moderate dimensions is typically designed to house several dozen people during the three summer months, and one or two dozen for the rest of the year, in special structures. Essential facilities include stockpiles of fuel and supplies, power generators, equipment to produce water from ice, and communications devices. Many of the coastal bases set up by the 27 countries currently present in Antarctica are of this type, including the Italian base in Terra Nova bay, located on the west coast of the Ross Sea. Bases built on rock are similar to high mountain shelters; those on the ice cap or ice shelves may quickly become unusable as snow accumulates which is why they are designed to be half-buried in the ice.

The U.S. base called McMurdo, on Ross Island, is the largest in Antarctica and the gateway to operations throughout the continent, capable of housing more than 1,000 people in summer and over 150 for the rest of the year. This and a few other Argentine, Chilean, and British bases at the tip of the peninsula resemble tiny frontier towns.

Some of Antarctica's natural resources have already been exploited; others, presumed to exist but not confirmed, are the subject of exploration and speculation. Exploitation of potential resources might determine the future of the region, which until now has essentially remained in its unaltered natural condition. A lively debate on future uses of Antarctica is under way in international circles, especially at Antarctic Treaty meetings. On the one hand, there are plans for exploitation of resources, colonization, and strategic occupation by the great powers and by nearby countries, as well as commercial development (consist-



ing at present of tourism). On the other hand, consideration is being given to the possibility of conserving all of Antarctica as the world's largest natural park, so that its unique and uncontaminated natural environment could be protected and could serve as a global purifying agent for a planet increasingly poisoned by the consequences of industrialization and overpopulation on the other continents.

**Living resources.** The enormous Southern Ocean is home to a rich fauna of higher animals (seals and birds) that gather seasonally on the rare beaches to breed. In the past, these great seasonal concentrations offered abundant and easy opportunities for hunters. The southern fur seal was hunted from the late 1700s until about 1850, when it had virtually disappeared, its population having been reduced from 2.5 million to a few hundred. On South Georgia, 320,000 skins were taken in the summer of 1822 alone. On the sub-Antarctic islands the elephant seal, males of which can weigh up to four tons, was hunted for its blubber throughout the 19th century, and this species was also decimated. Extraction of oil from king penguins also began in the early 1900s, but this industry never developed further.

The whales of the Southern Ocean were hunted and decimated in three phases. Exploitation of the slowest species began as early as the late 19th century, while the other great whales were hunted from the end of the 19th through the first decades of the 20th century, after the invention of the harpoon cannon, when the whaling industry still relied on land-based processing plants. After 1923, with the introduction of factory ships that could operate on the high seas, attention also turned gradually to the smaller species. Between 1930 and 1980, approximately 40,000 whales were killed every year in southern waters. Whaling activity was largely suspended in 1986, but several thousand whales are still killed each year in the Southern Ocean. The destruction inflicted on the great southern whales is staggering: the white whale has disappeared, the blue whale has been reduced to 5% of its initial population, and all the other large species have suffered similar decimation.

Exploitation of fish resources did not begin until a few decades ago. Deep-sea fish were taken from around the larger sub-Antarctic islands in the 1970s and 1980s, and stocks were soon depleted; given the slow growth of these species, it will take many years to reestablish the adult populations. Krill are the greatest potential resource for the future; harvests in recent years have produced up to 2 million tons annually. Krill fishing has not yet developed into a large-scale industry due to a number of technical difficulties, particularly packing of the catch, but the resource is so abundant that many countries are actively engaged in experimenting with commercial krill fishing.

**Mineral resources.** Many tales have been spun about the supposedly enormous mineral wealth of the Antarctic, which is believed to exist on the basis of geological analogies with ore-bearing terrains on the other southern continents to which Antarctica was joined during previous epochs. A statistical study has predicted that Antarctica contains some 900 ore deposits, including about forty in ice-free areas. However, aside from one low-grade iron deposit in the Prince Charles Mountains, no deposits have actually been found. In any case, mining techniques for operation underneath the ice cap have not yet been developed.

Expectations of finding oil in the Ross and Weddell basins and on the continental shelf around Antarctica have a better probability of being realized. However, a number of prerequisites exist for economically feasible Antarctic oil production, none of which have been met: the oil deposits have yet to be identified and oil-drilling technologies used in the Arctic must be developed further for the much more hostile and dangerous environmental conditions of Antarctic waters, not to mention that extraction difficulties and distance from markets would make Antarctic oil, if it were discovered, extremely expensive.

The Antarctic continental ice cap, created by atmospheric precipitation, represents the largest water reservoir on Earth, constituting 68% of the world's fresh water. If Antarctic ice could be transported to arid regions, it would be a potential resource of enormous value for humanity's future. Here again, the environmental risks and technological difficulties associated with exploitation would be substantial; so far only a few feasibility studies have been conducted, along with some experiments involving towing icebergs for short distances at sea.

**Tourism.** Antarctica's only important potential resources are natural ones: since the continent is virtually uninhabited, there are no significant economic activities associated with its population. In recent years, however, amid controversy, a certain amount of commercial tourist development has appeared on the Antarctic scene. Sailors and adventurers are challenging the Southern Ocean in pleasure boats, and tour operators are taking cruise ships through the magnificent scenery of the Antarctic Peninsula and sometimes into the Ross Sea. The first Antarctic hotel has been built on a Chilean base, and a few sightseeing flights have flown over the continent, although there is no air traffic control system and such flights ended in 1976 after a tragic accident on Mt. Erebus. In recent years, several thousand tourists have visited Antarctica briefly during the short southern summer. Only a few countries are encouraging Antarctic tourism; the majority firmly oppose it, regarding it as a serious environmental threat and a disruption to scientific research, which is by far the prevalent activity on the continent.

**Subdivisions and spheres of influence.** Antarctica's international status is unique: the continent is undivided and accessible to all. Historically, seven countries have laid claim to Antarctic territories, in the form of sectors defined by lines of longitude and converging on the South Pole. Since 1908, when Great Britain claimed the sector containing the Antarctic Peninsula, Argentina, Australia, Chile, France, Norway, and New Zealand have advanced territorial claims. The sectors claimed by Argentina and Chile overlap one another as well as the British sector, and Australia claims an enormous sector equivalent to 43% of the continent. In addition, in the 1950s the United States and the Soviet Union reserved their own "rights" on the Antarctic continent, without declaring sovereignty over specific territories.

International law confers no validity on these national claims to territories which the claimant nations themselves are not capable of occupying. The international community has essentially ignored these aspirations, since only five of the world's 170 countries have recognized other nations' claims.

The positive experience of the International Geophysical Year of 1957-58, when all the countries with Antarctic interests coop-

erated to explore the continent and had access to an undivided Antarctica, led to the Antarctic Treaty signed in 1959 (enacted in 1961), which at present constitutes the actual international instrument governing the Antarctic region. It was originally signed by 12 governments, including all the territorial claimants and the two superpowers; to date 40 have acceded to it. Treaty signatories include both global and regional powers—the United States, the former Soviet Union, China, India, Japan, Brazil, Germany—and other countries, representing more than 80% of humanity. Prior claims are neither recognized nor refuted in the treaty, but it prohibits any new claims. The Antarctic Treaty does not definitively resolve the principal political question, namely that of sovereignty over Antarctica: it merely “freezes” it, and thus keeps potential conflicts frozen as well.

The Treaty prohibits the militarization of Antarctica and the use of nuclear weapons, and promotes international cooperation in the activity of greatest interest: scientific research. The result has been to ensure a state of peace in the Antarctic region, despite its considerable strategic importance. In its first thirty years the Antarctic Treaty has spawned a huge body of regulations that have largely been enacted to preserve natural resources and protect the natural environment; the Treaty is bolstered by other international agreements concerning natural resources and environmental protection.

Nevertheless, the Antarctic Treaty binds only those countries that have signed it; others do not agree that Antarctic questions are to be settled exclusively by reference to the Treaty, and have

*The Governments of Argentina, Australia, Belgium, Chile, the French Republic, Japan, New Zealand, Norway, the Union of South Africa, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and the United States of America,*

*Recognizing that it is in the interest of all mankind that Antarctica shall continue forever to be used exclusively for peaceful purposes and shall not become the scene or object of international discord ...*

*Have agreed as follows:*

**Article I**

*1. Antarctica shall be used for peaceful purposes only. There shall be prohibited, inter alia, any measures of a military nature, such as the establishment of military bases and fortifications, the carrying out of military maneuvers, as well as the testing of any types of weapons.*



2. The present Treaty shall not prevent the use of military personnel or equipment for scientific research or for any other peaceful purpose....

#### Article IX

1. Representatives of the Contracting Parties named in the preamble to the present Treaty shall meet ... for the purpose of exchanging information, consulting together on matters of common interest pertaining to Antarctica, and formulating and considering, and recommending to their Governments, measures in furtherance of the principles and objectives of the Treaty, including measures regarding:

- 1) use of Antarctica for peaceful purposes only;
- 2) facilitation of scientific research in Antarctica;
- 3) facilitation of international scientific cooperation in Antarctica;
- 4) facilitation of the exercise of the rights of inspection provided for in Article VII of the Treaty;
- 5) questions relating to the exercise of jurisdiction in Antarctica;
- 6) preservation and conservation of living resources in Antarctica.

The Protocol on Environmental Policy of 1991 includes the following passages:

*The States Parties to this Protocol ...*

*Convinced of the need to enhance the protection of the Antarctic environment and dependent and associated ecosystems ...*

*Recalling the designation of Antarctica as a Special Conservation Area and other measures adopted under the Antarctic Treaty system to protect the Antarctic environment and depend-*

*ent and associated ecosystems;*

*Acknowledging further the unique opportunities Antarctica offers for scientific monitoring of and research on processes of global as well as regional importance; ...*

*Convinced that the development of a comprehensive regime for the protection of the Antarctic environment and dependent and associated ecosystems is in the interest of mankind as a whole; ...*

*Have agreed as follows:*

#### Article 2.

*... The Parties commit themselves to the comprehensive protection of the Antarctic environment and dependent and associated ecosystems and hereby designate Antarctica as a natural reserve, devoted to peace and science.*

#### Article 3.

*... The protection of the Antarctic environment ... and the intrinsic value of Antarctica, including its wilderness and aesthetic values and its value as an area for the conduct of scientific research, in particular research essential to understanding the global environment, shall be fundamental considerations in the planning and conduct of all activities in the Antarctic Treaty area.*

An example of one of the more recent signatories of the Antarctic Treaty is Italy, which had a prior tradition of polar exploration in the Arctic but not the Antarctic, and has been present on the continent since 1985. Annual Italian expeditions involve over a hundred technicians and researchers who undertake scientific investigations of the polar upper atmosphere (studying ozone loss), the geology of the Transantarctic Mountains, biology, marine ecology, the oceanography of the Southern Ocean, environmental characteristics of water and ice, and a number of other subjects of importance for polar and global science.

# POLAR REGIONS

## Images



1. Two splendid specimens of the polar bear, the largest carnivore of the Arctic regions and a symbol of the animal species that manage to survive in the harsh polar climate and environment. It has also given the name "Arctic" to the north polar region of the world: the Greeks used the word *arktos*, or the "Little Bear," to identify what is called in English the Little Dipper, containing the North Star toward which the Earth's rotation axis seems to point.

2. Eighty percent of Greenland, the Danish island located in the northwest Atlantic between the Canadian Arctic and the islands of Spitsbergen and Iceland, is covered by an immense ice cap 10,000 ft [3000 m] thick in some places. The "raised beaches" resulting from isostatic glacial elevation are another characteristic phenomenon.

3. Icebergs, which float and drift on the ocean, are formed essentially as a result of the disintegration of polar glaciers that descend from the edge of the Arctic ice cap and break up into these magnificent blocks of ice, which can often represent a serious hazard to shipping.

4. Ships traveling the leg-

endary Northwest Passage, long sought by polar explorers since the 16th century, when the idea emerged of communication by sea from the Atlantic to eastern Asia by sailing west. After many years of expeditions, beset by cold and navigation difficulties, the passage was finally proved to exist in the mid-19th century but not actually navigated until over half a century later when the Norwegian explorer Roald Amundsen successfully made the journey (1903-06).

5. A haunting image of the aurora borealis, photographed near Fairbanks, Alaska. The "northern lights" illuminate the night sky at high latitudes, creating arcs, circles, lines, bands, and curtains of light on the horizon, in colors from blue to red and green. They are caused by interaction between electrically charged subatomic particles ejected by the Sun and the atoms and molecules present in the Earth's ionosphere at altitudes above 60 mi [100 km].

6. Perpetually frozen subsoil (permafrost) limits Arctic vegetation to the typical tundra forms, with more than 400 species of mosses and lichens, most importantly *Cladonia* (reindeer moss), the basic food of reindeer and caribou. There are also a few

areas of meadow and isolated groves of broadleaf trees, especially beeches, perhaps survivors of a more extensive forest cover in past ages.

7. A small group of walruses enlivens the monotonous panorama of the Arctic Ocean. One of several species of *Odobenus* mammals inhabiting the Arctic, the walrus is declining in numbers due to past hunting by humans, who used their blubber, skins, and ivory tusks

8. Two Greenland or "harp" seals, so called from the dark brown or black crescent, harp-like patch on the backs of adult males; in females, this marking takes the form of grayish-black spots. Like all other Arctic animal species, seals are protected by international regulations.

9. The main means of land transportation used by Arctic peoples to travel over the immense stretches of ice that cover the northern polar region is the sled, drawn by reindeer or more commonly by dogs called "huskies," the only draft animals capable of withstanding local temperatures which often dip to  $-60^{\circ}\text{F}$  [ $-50^{\circ}\text{C}$ ]. Air and sea links and their airport and harbor facilities, extensively used by tourists during the summer months,

are also sure to assume increasing importance in international communications.

10. An old Eskimo woman. The native population living in the part of the Arctic that does not belong to Russia is represented principally by Eskimos. Only in the recent past have these people come into contact with Europeans, who have settled in these areas for commercial purposes and to conduct scientific research and mineral exploration.

11. An Eskimo from the Canadian Far North fashions a sculpture of two polar bears. The extreme rarity of these animals in the polar region, and their valiant struggle for survival paralleling that of humans, have made them a popular subject for artists.

12. Continual migrations in the past, motivated by the need to find food by hunting, now make it difficult to determine the origins of the Eskimos, a people with Mongoloid traits who have lived in the Arctic for at least 2000 years. Although they are quite homogeneous in terms of language and geographic provenience, the Eskimos belong to distinct "nations" with specific characteristics.

13. Two Eskimo children play

with a handmade wooden sled on the ice surrounding Delo airfield in the western Arctic. Even in the most remote villages, the Eskimos have built rudimentary landing strips and moorings accessible to Coast Guard icebreakers or amphibious vessels transporting provisions, so as to maintain constant contact with other geographic regions and find relief from their isolation.

14. Houses around the little harbor settlement of Holsteinsborg on the west coast of Greenland. Recent contact with colonists and missionaries from Denmark and Scandinavia has led the local Eskimos, still the prevalent ethnic group, to abandon their traditional igloos and live in modern villages, usually scattered along the coasts.

15. Nighttime view of an igloo in the Canadian Arctic. Hemispherical in shape, these traditional Eskimo dwellings are built of square blocks of packed snow, or have structural frames, often made of whalebone, covered with snow. It has been only since the arrival of Europeans that Arctic natives have begun to prefer houses made of wood, and with them a much more sedentary way of life than their previous existence based on hunting and fishing.

16. One of the principal economic resources of the Arctic region, along with fishing and hunting, is the herding of reindeer. These ruminants, with their short, dense coats, have been domesticated by the Lapps and other Eurasian Arctic peoples as draft animals and for their milk and meat, as well as for the precious skins they yield.

17. A small fishing boat threads its way between two icebergs floating on the icy seas around Greenland. Since 1831, explorers throughout the world dreamed of crossing the North Pole; the feat was finally accomplished, beneath the ice, by the American nuclear-powered submarine Nautilus in the summer of 1958.

18. Flags from around the world fly at the spot on the Antarctic continent marked as the geographic South Pole. International cooperation has made Antarctica an unexpected success story in the history of international relations, based on the scientific research and environmental protection principles laid down in the Antarctic Treaty that took effect in 1961, and on a series of later agreements.

19. The Transantarctic Mountains, seen from the air near Victoria Land. The geographic layout of Antarctica is usually described as a subdivision into two major regions, West and East, separated by the depressions of the Ross and Weddell Seas along which the Transantarctic range runs for 2500 mi [4000 km].

20. The majestic profile of volcanic Mt. Erebus, still active, and located on Ross Island in the Ross Sea. This volcanic island is made up of no fewer than four cones, the largest of which, Erebus, rises to an elevation of more than 12,000 ft [3700 m] and is 2600 ft [800 m] across.

21. An icebreaker noses into the Antarctic Ocean, cutting through the pack ice—the thin layer of permanent ice that covers much of the ocean's surface and in winter seamlessly welds together the land areas of the Antarctic basin. Although temperatures are almost always below freezing, the deep water remains liquid because of its high salt content, which considerably lowers its freezing point.

22. The famous "midnight Sun" symbolizes the profound climatic differences between the polar regions and other latitudes of the globe: day and night each last several months, with about one transitional month of twilight occurring twice a year. Antarctica is the coldest continent on Earth, with average temperatures of about  $-85^{\circ}\text{F}$  [ $-65^{\circ}\text{C}$ ] between April and September, rising to  $-22^{\circ}\text{F}$  [ $-30^{\circ}\text{C}$ ] between December and February.

23. One of the rarest seabird species in the Antarctic is the emperor penguin, which spends the winter in small flocks on the sea ice. Many thousands of years ago penguins were almost certainly expert fliers, but their wings slowly evolved into flippers as an adaptation to the need to feed on fish.

24. The waters of the Southern Ocean are rich in small herbivorous planktonic crustaceans known collectively as krill, which migrate slowly in uncountable numbers, especially in the pack-ice region. Classified into about a dozen species, krill are vital to the existence of all higher animals that feed on them directly or indirectly. They are also attracting attention from biologists, concerned about the incalculable effects on the entire ecosystem of indiscriminate krill fishing on an industrial scale.

25. The islands surrounding the Antarctic continent are inhabited by huge numbers of Adelie penguins, seabirds which are distinguished from the more common penguin species by their pointed conical heads and short black and red beaks. They usually live in colonies that can sometimes exceed 300,000 individuals.

26. The elephant seal, along with the leopard seal, is one of the largest Antarctic mammals, identified by the bizarre pendulous proboscis above its mouth. It can grow to a length of more than 20 ft [6 m] and can weigh over three tons; it needs to eat at least 200 lb [100 kg] of fish a day.

27. A Weddell seal, the typical Antarctic seal, has white and yellowish spots on its back and fur tipped with silver. Antarctic seal populations are steadily rising, since the principal competing marine species, especially the great whales, have declined enormously due to hunting by humans.

28. Among the millions of birds that soar through the

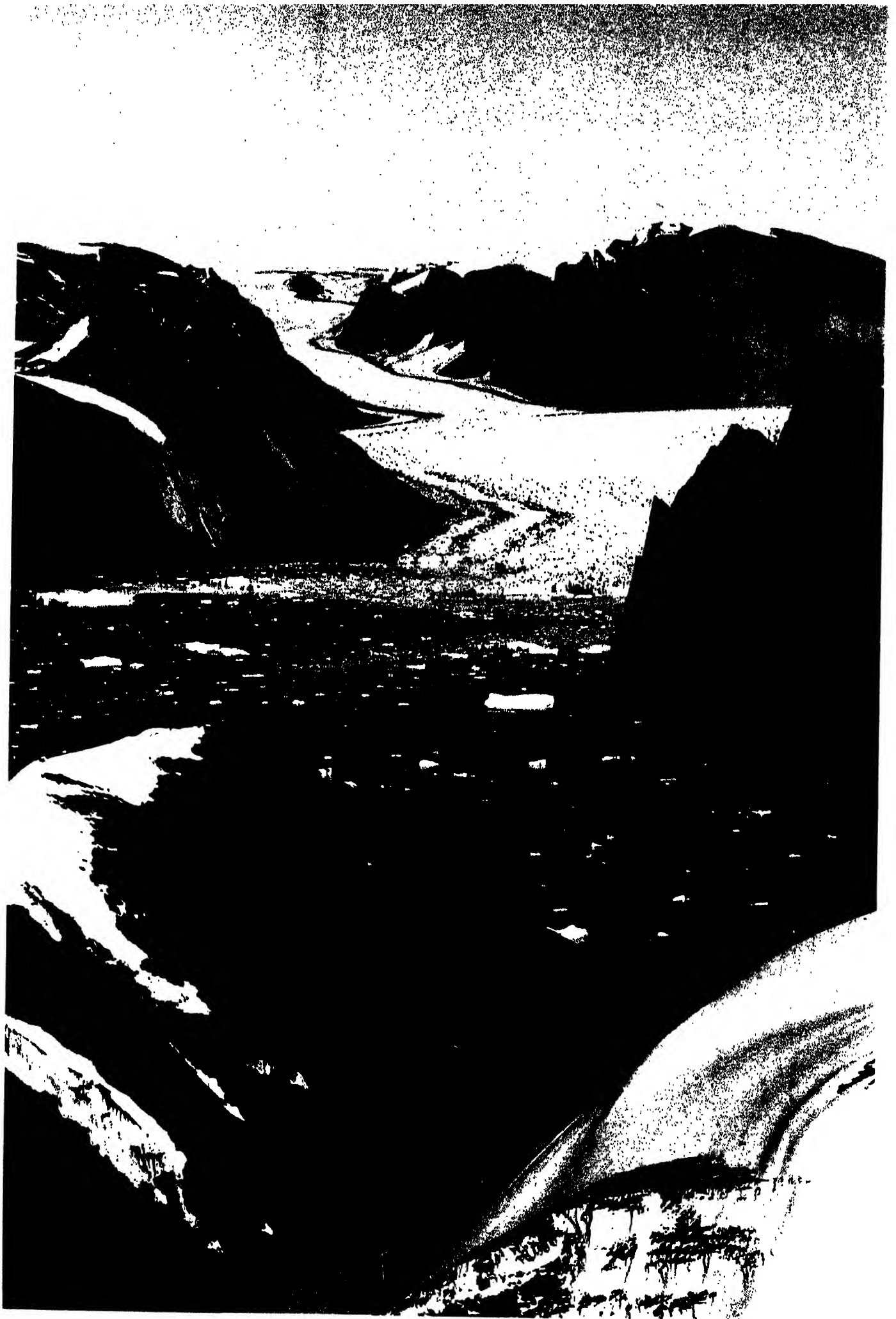
twilight of the Antarctic glaciers, it is not unusual to see the common skua in search of food. The extremely cold climate that dominates the Antarctic landmass is not felt with such intensity in the sea, which is therefore extremely rich in animal life.

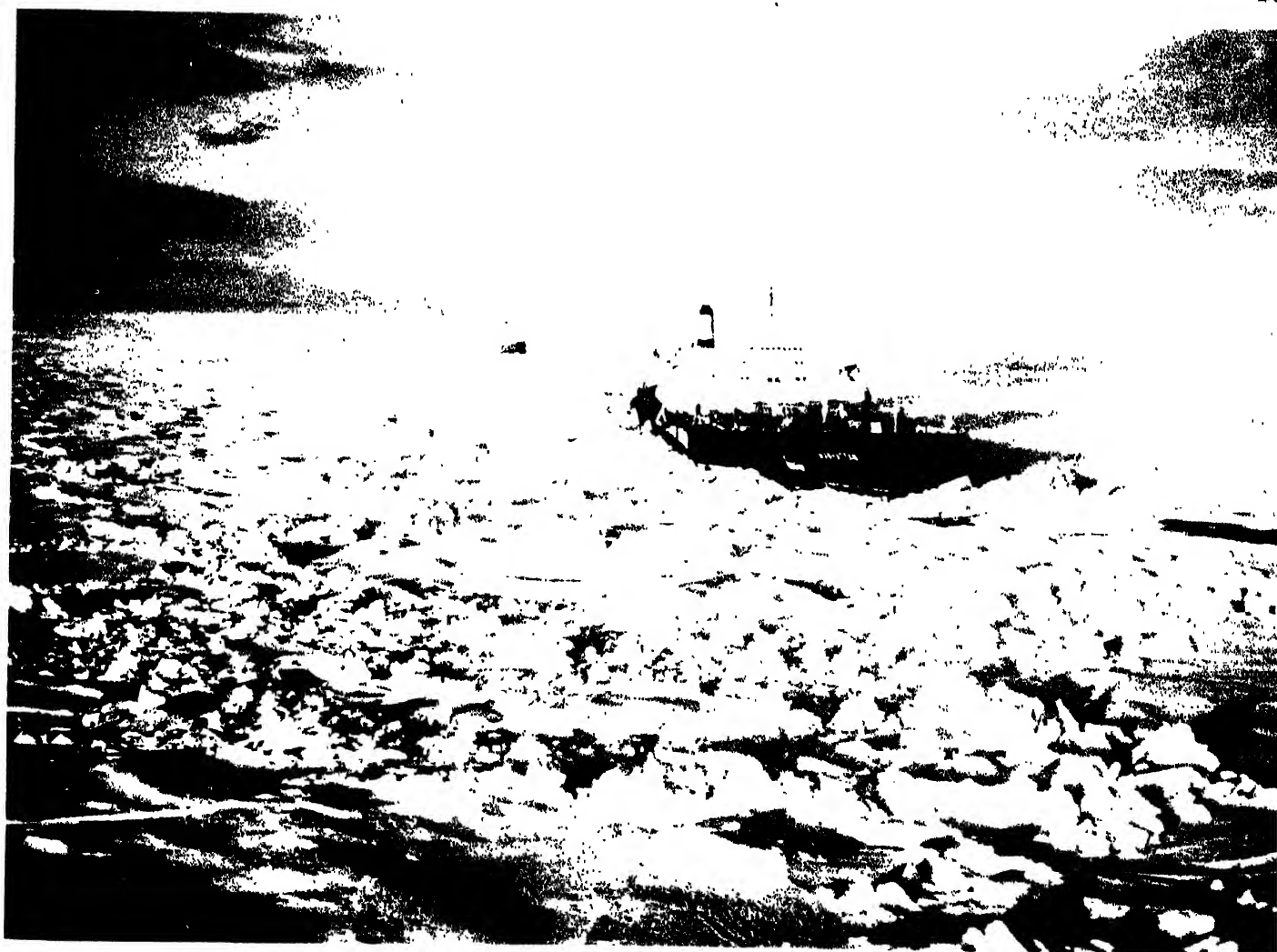
29. Group photograph of delegates from the nations participating in the Antarctic Treaty, promulgated in 1959 and in force since 1961. Although the Treaty, which now includes 40 signatory nations, is the only collection of regulatory standards acknowledged to have international validity, it does not definitively resolve the delicate question of political sovereignty over Antarctic territory.

30. Aerial view of the German Antarctic base named for Georg von Neumayr. In many cases, the selection of appropriate sites for the construction of scientific stations and the air strips associated with them dates back to the occasion of the International Geophysical Year proclaimed in 1957–58, when groups of scientists from all over the world explored hitherto unknown areas of the Antarctic, bringing back results of considerable value. The hostility of Antarctica's environment and climate greatly affects the human presence there, reducing it often to a bare minimum of scientific camps designed to house a limited number of people.

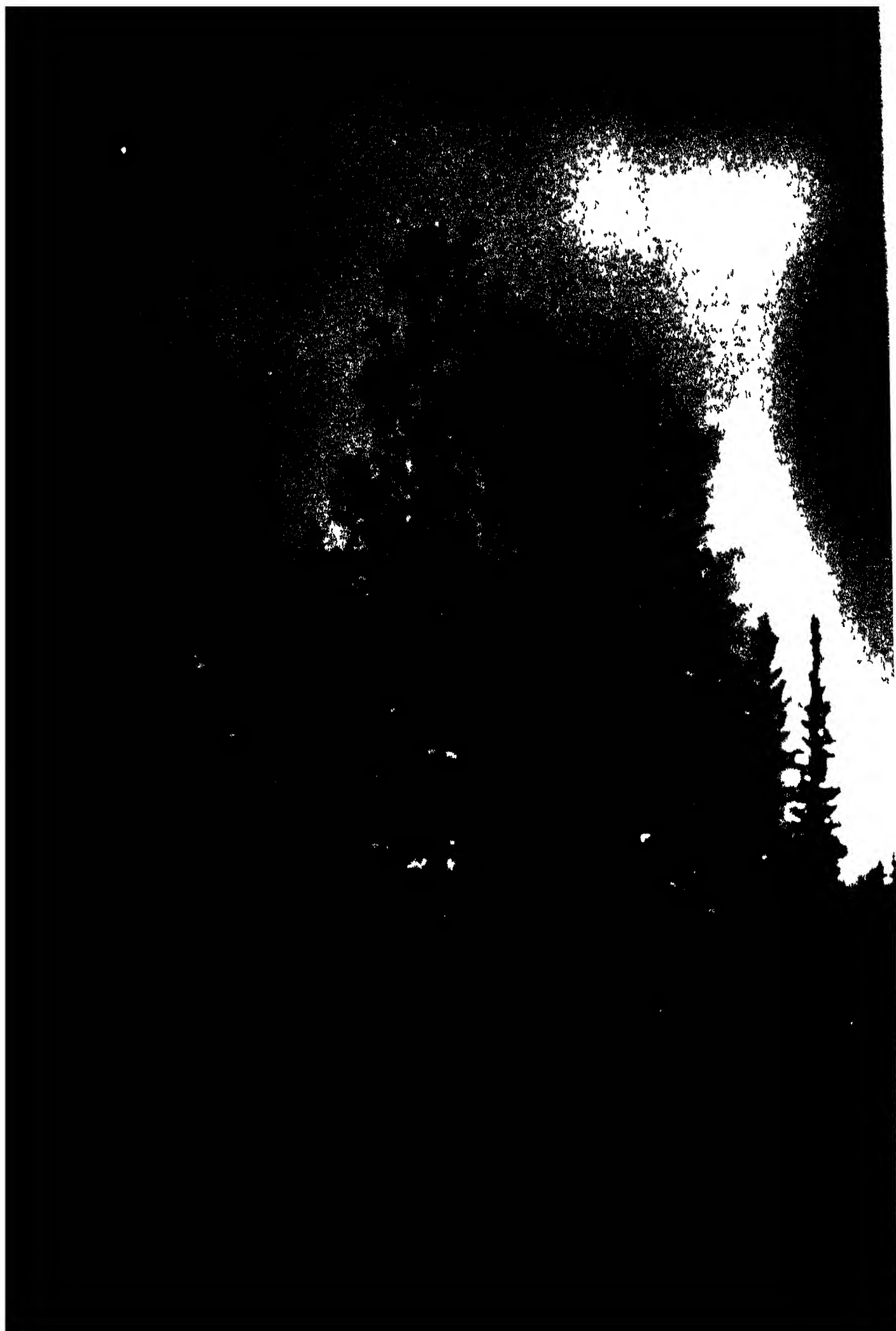
## *The Arctic*







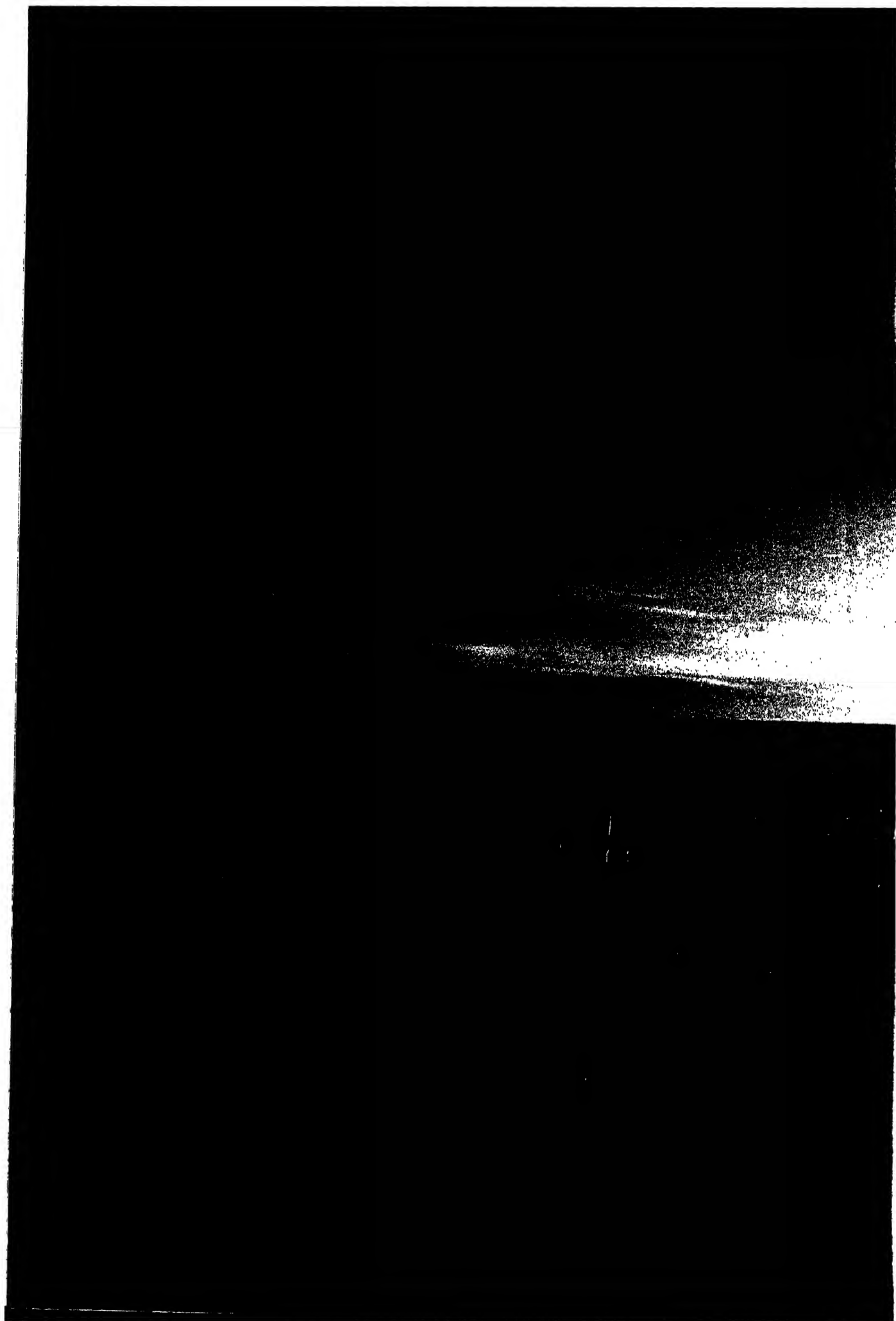








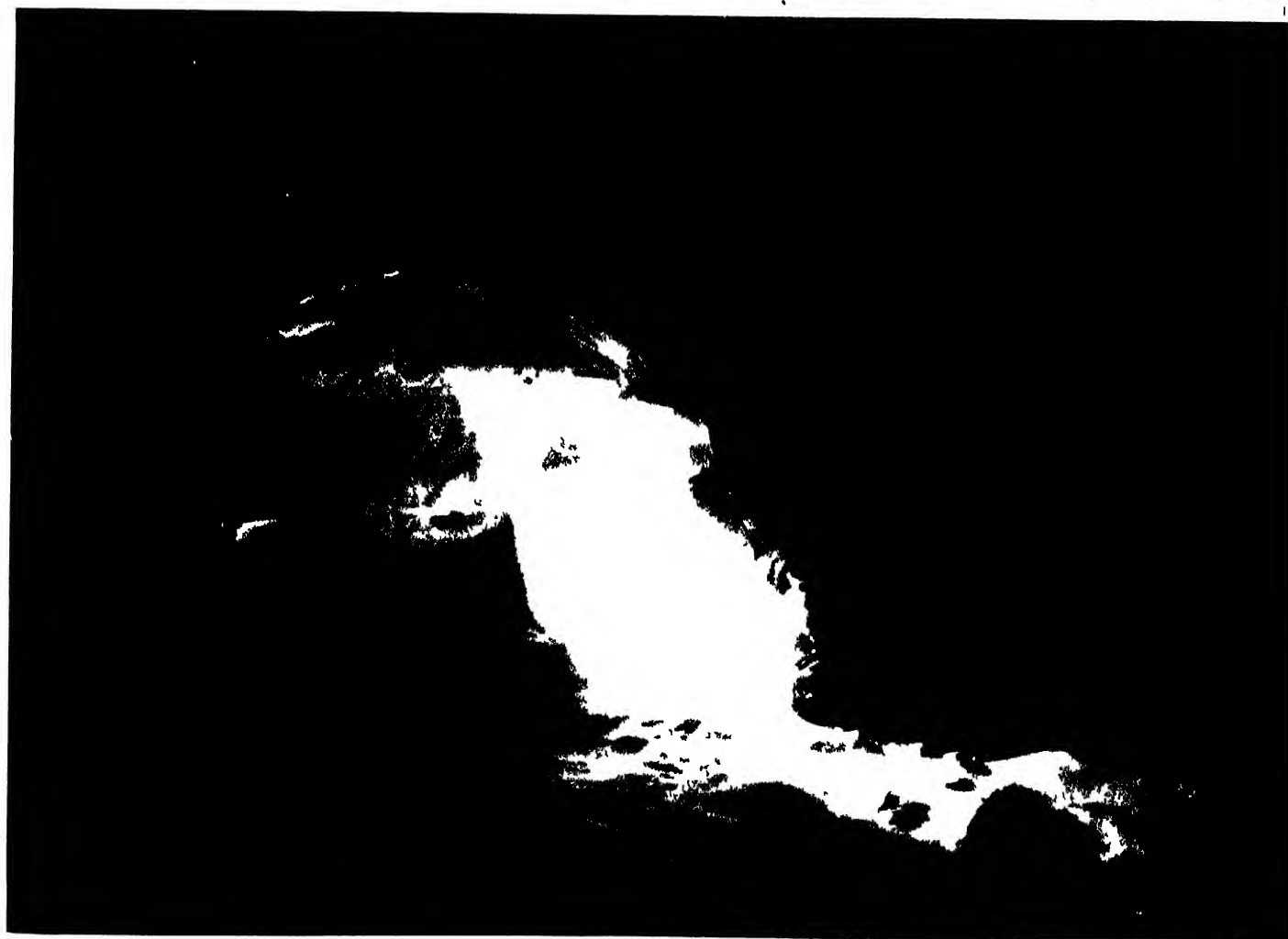
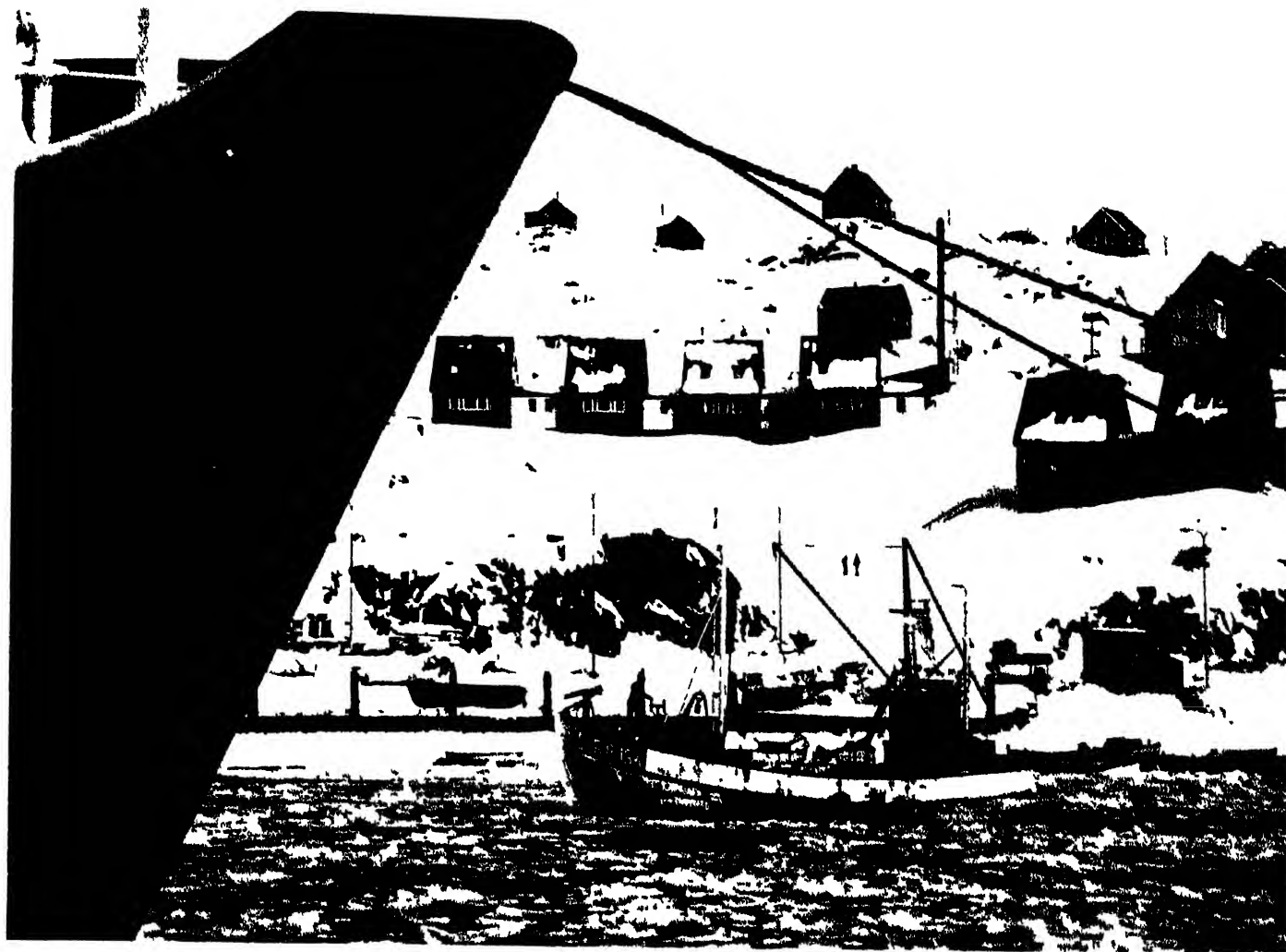


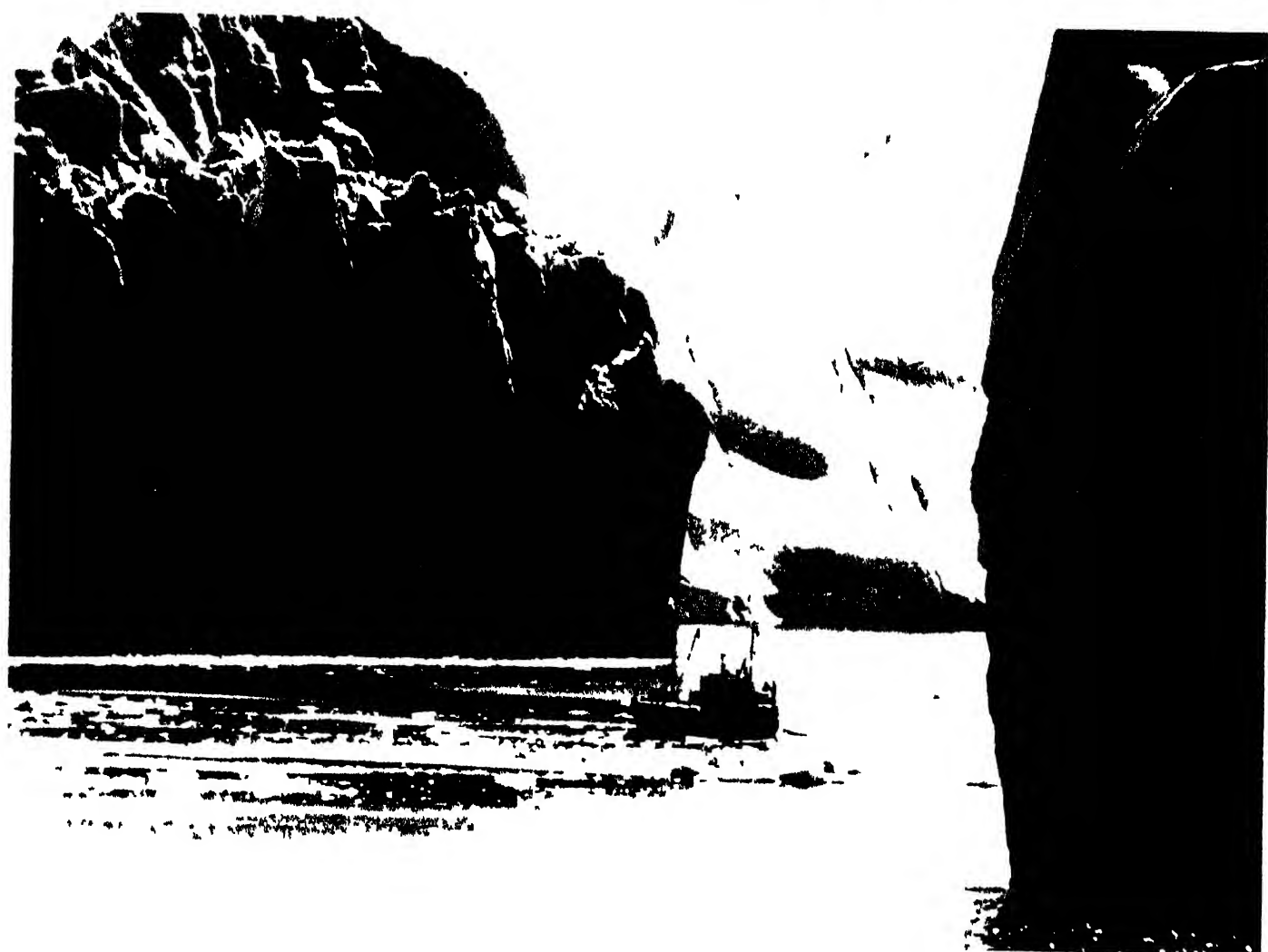




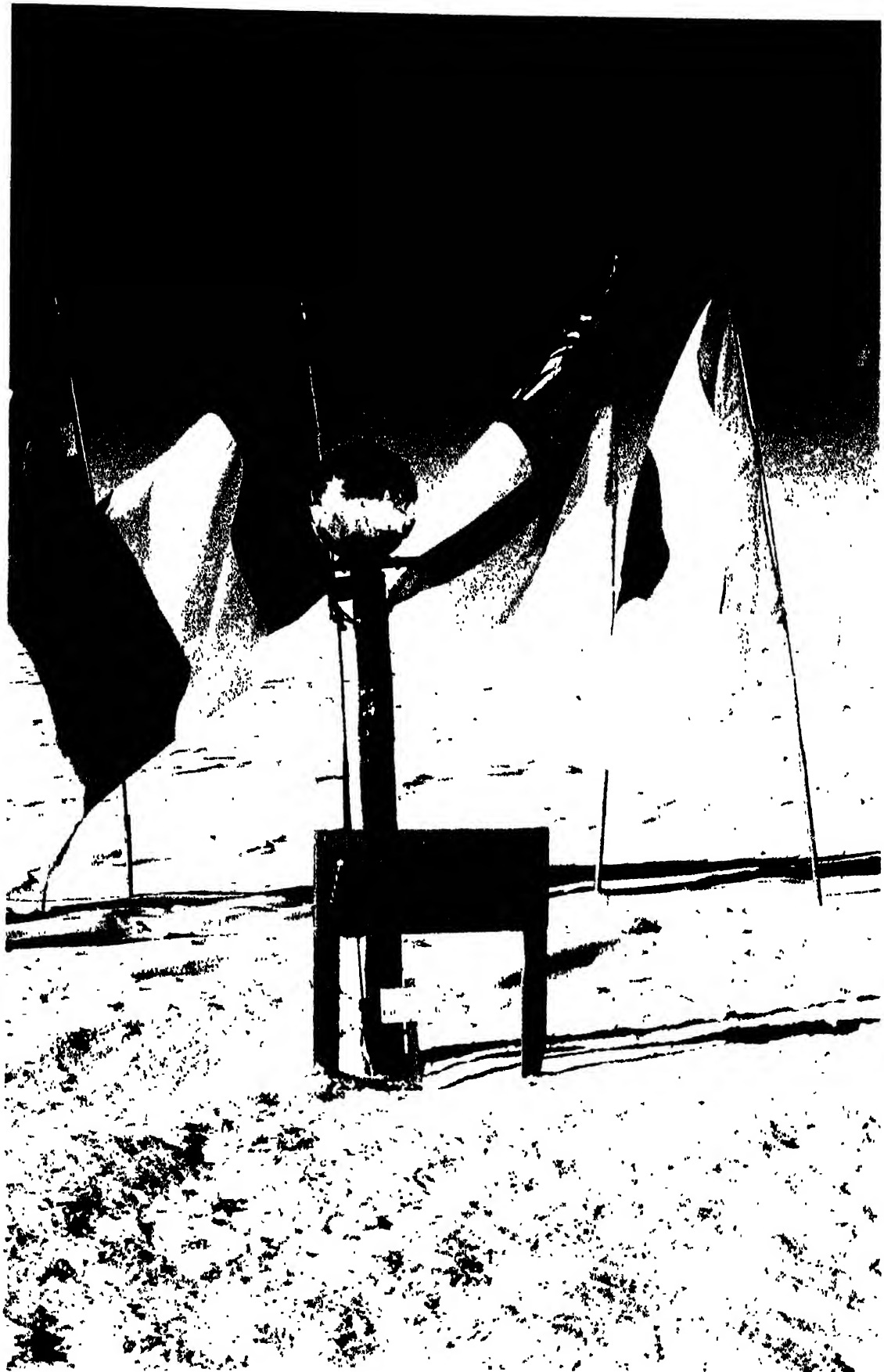








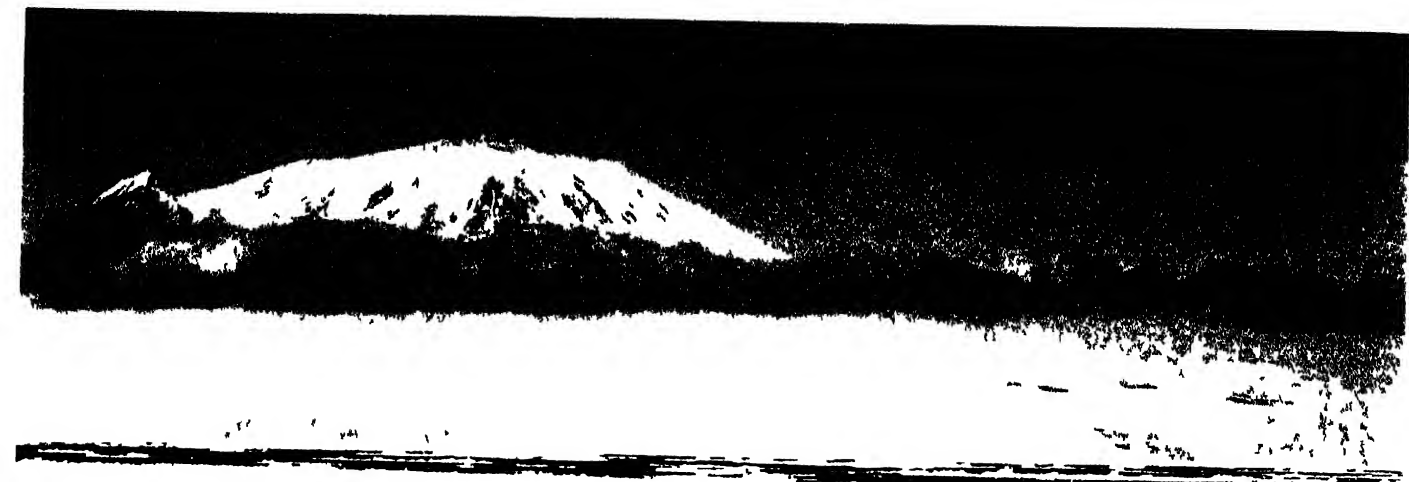
## *Antarctica*





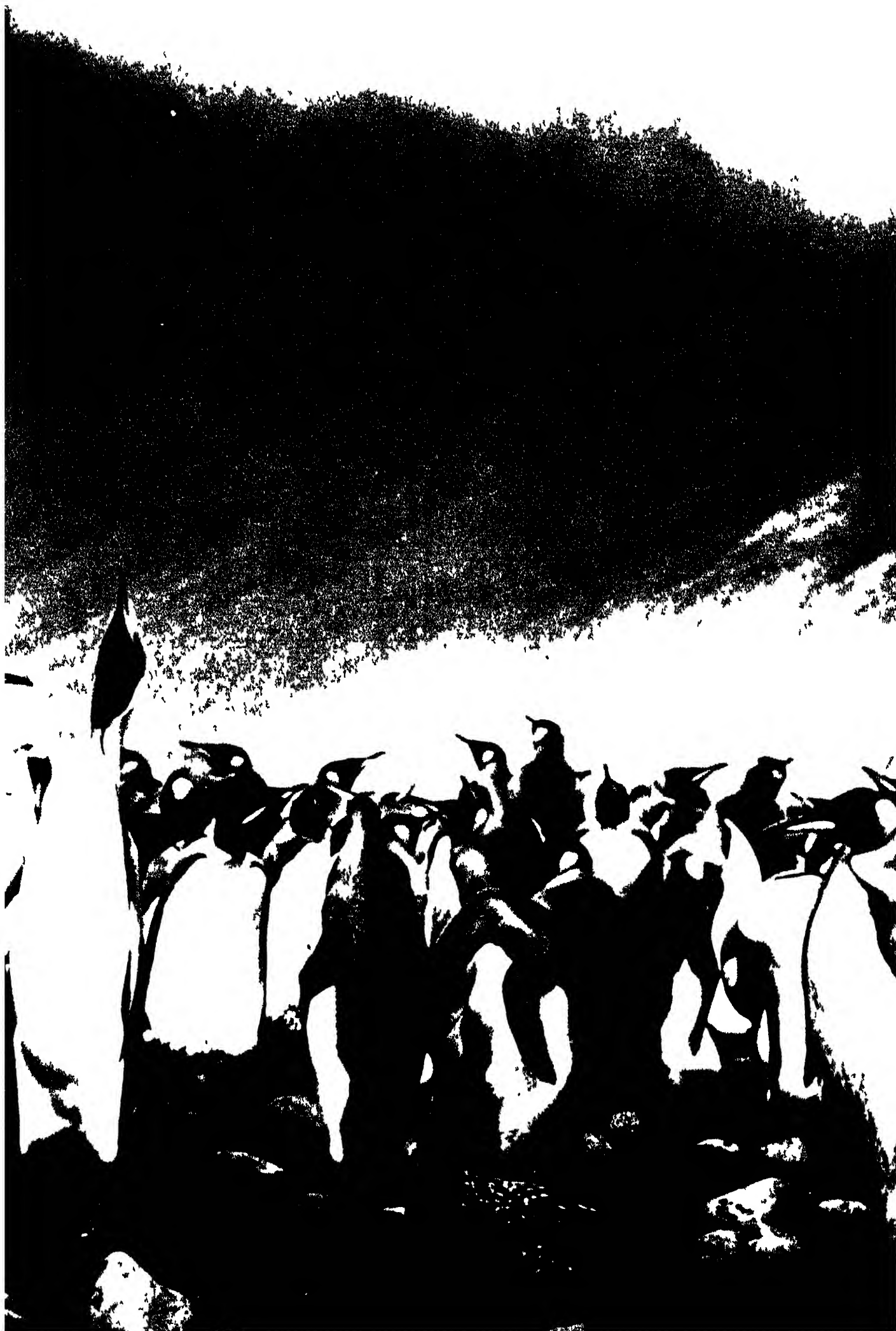










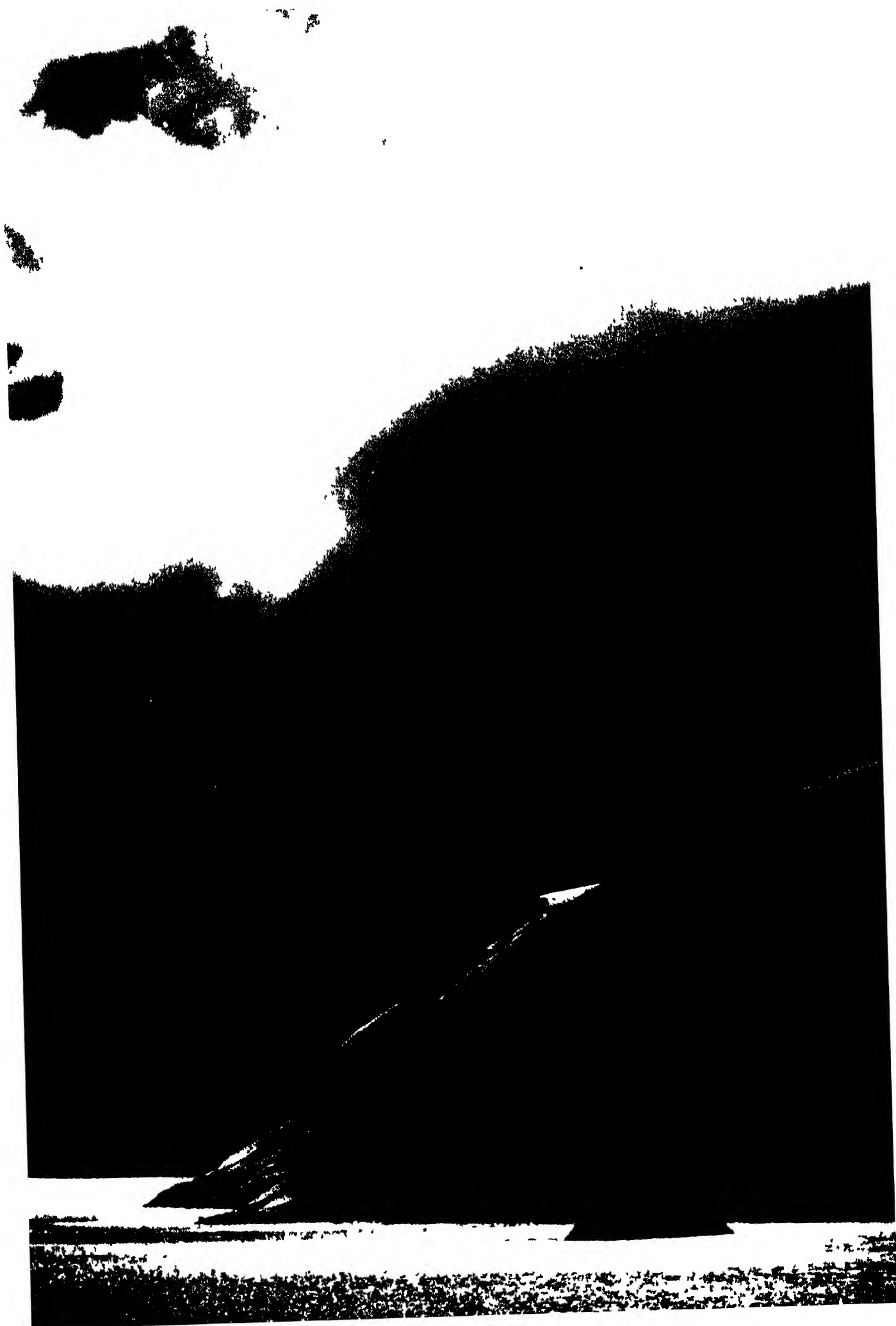


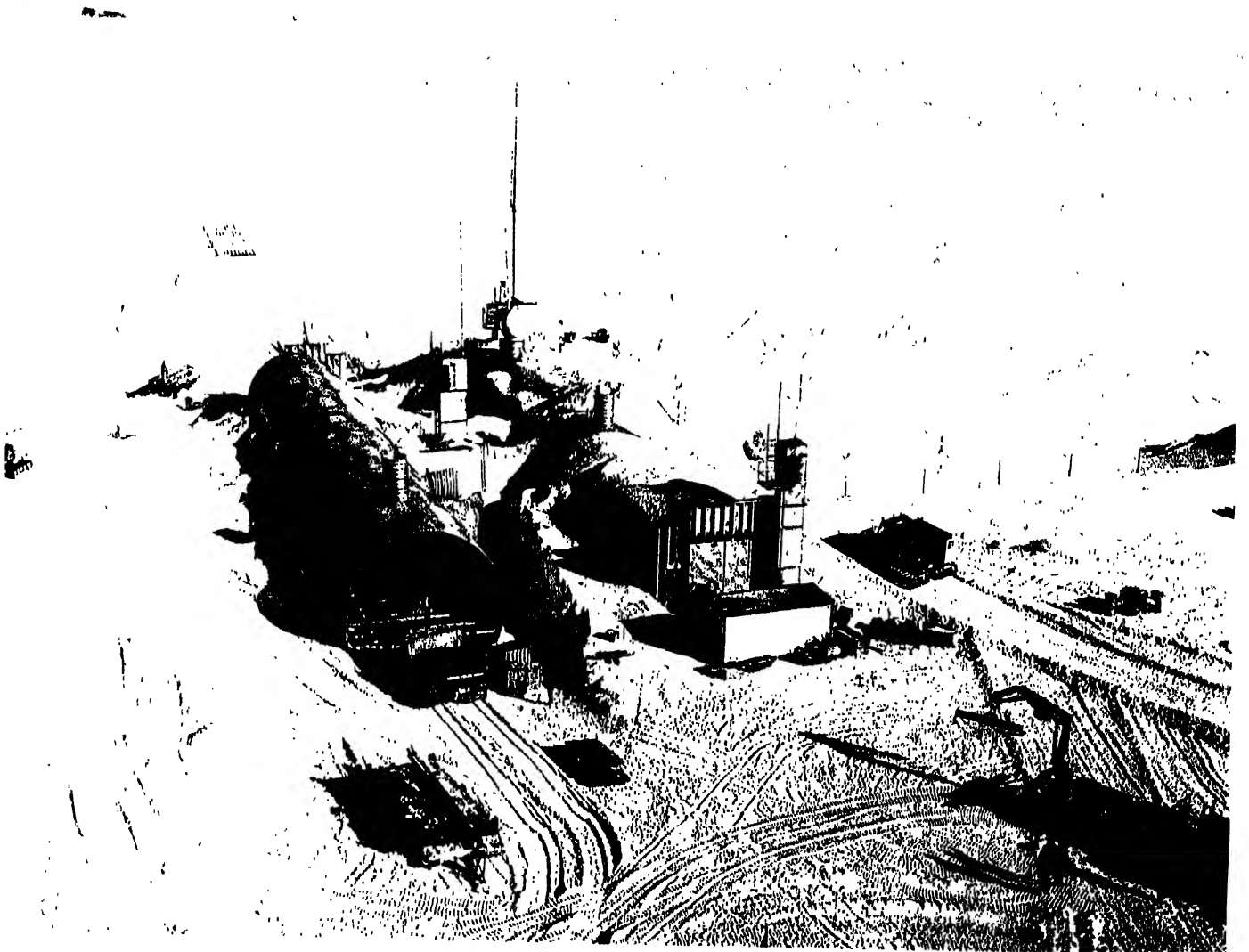












# GENERAL GEOGRAPHY



In the infancy of cultural history, geography originated as a branch of cosmography, or that science which studied the entire universe (Greek *kosmos*) observable by human beings. And considerable attention was always devoted to the study of the heavenly bodies that surrounded our Earth in the realm of the skies. Both cosmographers and even the most primitive cultures have always believed the real or apparent motion of the stars to be the cause of many specific conditions observable on Earth, and have attempted to explain them in religious or scientific terms.

## THE PLANET

The motions of the Sun in particular, the most brilliant star in our sky and often regarded as divine, were naturally made responsible for the alternation of day and night, and for the seasons and therefore climatic variations as well. Its apparent motion around the Earth, like the motion of all the stars, was the source of the geocentric concept of the universe that is found in every culture, and that endured in Western civilization until the time of Kepler, Copernicus, and Galileo.

The Moon, so mysterious in the sequence of its phases, was believed to exert both beneficent and evil influences on humans and on every other living thing, in particular on fertility. Its phases also offered humans a division of time (into lunar months) subordinate to the solar year.

The inexplicable changes in the movements of our satellite and of the planets of the solar system as compared to those of the "fixed" stars gave rise to mechanistic theories, the most famous of which (and the one most adhered to by Western astronomy until the beginning of the contemporary era) was the Aristotelian idea of the celestial spheres, rotating around the Earth at different rates and on different axes. In some languages the ageless fascination with the various heavenly bodies is reflected in the names of the days of the week (in English,

Sunday and Monday, for example).

The spherical shape of the Earth has also been a part of human knowledge for millennia, more by analogy with the shape of the visible planets than by true experimentation. The first irrefutable demonstration that the Earth was round came with the first circumnavigation of the globe by Magellan in the 16th century. And it was only in the 17th and 18th centuries that astronomical, geophysical, geodetic, and climatological knowledge began to take scientific shape, giving impetus, once the entire Earth's surface had been explored, to the modern adventure of space travel.

**The Earth within the solar system.** The Earth, it was discovered, is not at the center of the universe, but is only one of nine planets revolving in elliptical orbits around the Sun, constituting a heliocentric grouping (the solar system). The Sun in turn is just one star (and a rather small and dim one) among the billions that make up the Milky Way, one of innumerable galaxies that populate the universe. Our galaxy was named for the fact that it appears in our night sky as a long milky trail of particularly densely packed stars. The Earth is approximately 93 million mi [150 million km] from the Sun; only Mercury and Venus are closer, and the other six planets are much farther away. Pluto, the most remote, lies at a distance of over 3.6 billion mi [5.9 billion km]. The Earth is the fifth largest of the Sun's planets, with a diameter of about 7750 mi [12,500 km].

The distances between the Sun and the other stars of our galaxy are enormous, so great that they cannot be measured in miles or kilometers (one kilometer is, by definition, one forty-thousandth of the Earth's circumference), but in light-years, equivalent to the distance covered in one year by light traveling in the cosmic vacuum (light travels about 186,000 mi [300,000 km] in one second, and 5.87 billion mi [9.46 billion km] in a year). Although the Sun's light reaches us in a little over 8 minutes, there are stars in our galaxy whose light takes millions of years to arrive. By the time we observe them they have already disappeared.

The Sun is a spherical mass of incandescent material, fluid on its surface (photosphere), where its temperature is almost 11,000°F [6000°C]. Its diameter is 110 times greater than that of the Earth, and its volume 1.3 million times larger. The gravitational force exerted on the Earth by the enormous mass of the Sun is responsible for our planet's revolution around the star, which occurs in an elliptical orbit according to laws that were defined by Isaac Newton, discoverer of the force of gravity.

Only a tiny fraction of the immense quantity of light and heat radiated by the Sun reaches the Earth, although even that is sufficient to sustain the life of all the animal and plant species that live on it. This is due in part to the relatively short time (24 hours) required for the Earth to rotate once around its own axis, which results in relatively short periods of exposure to the Sun's heat by day and to the cold of night. Moreover, the inclination of the Earth's axis with respect to the plane along which it orbits around the Sun causes changes in the Earth's exposure to solar radiation over the course of the solar year, producing the progression of the seasons.

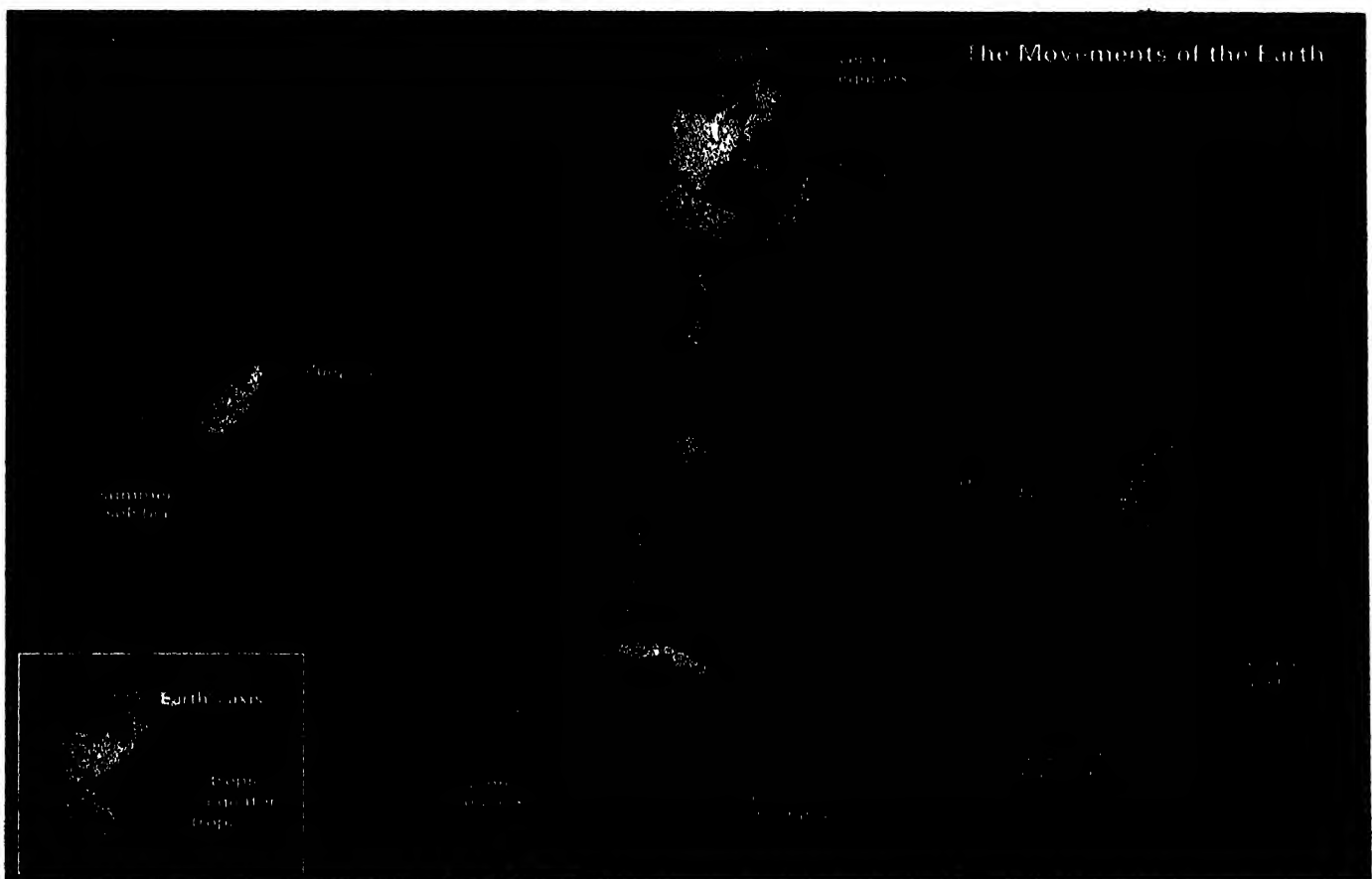
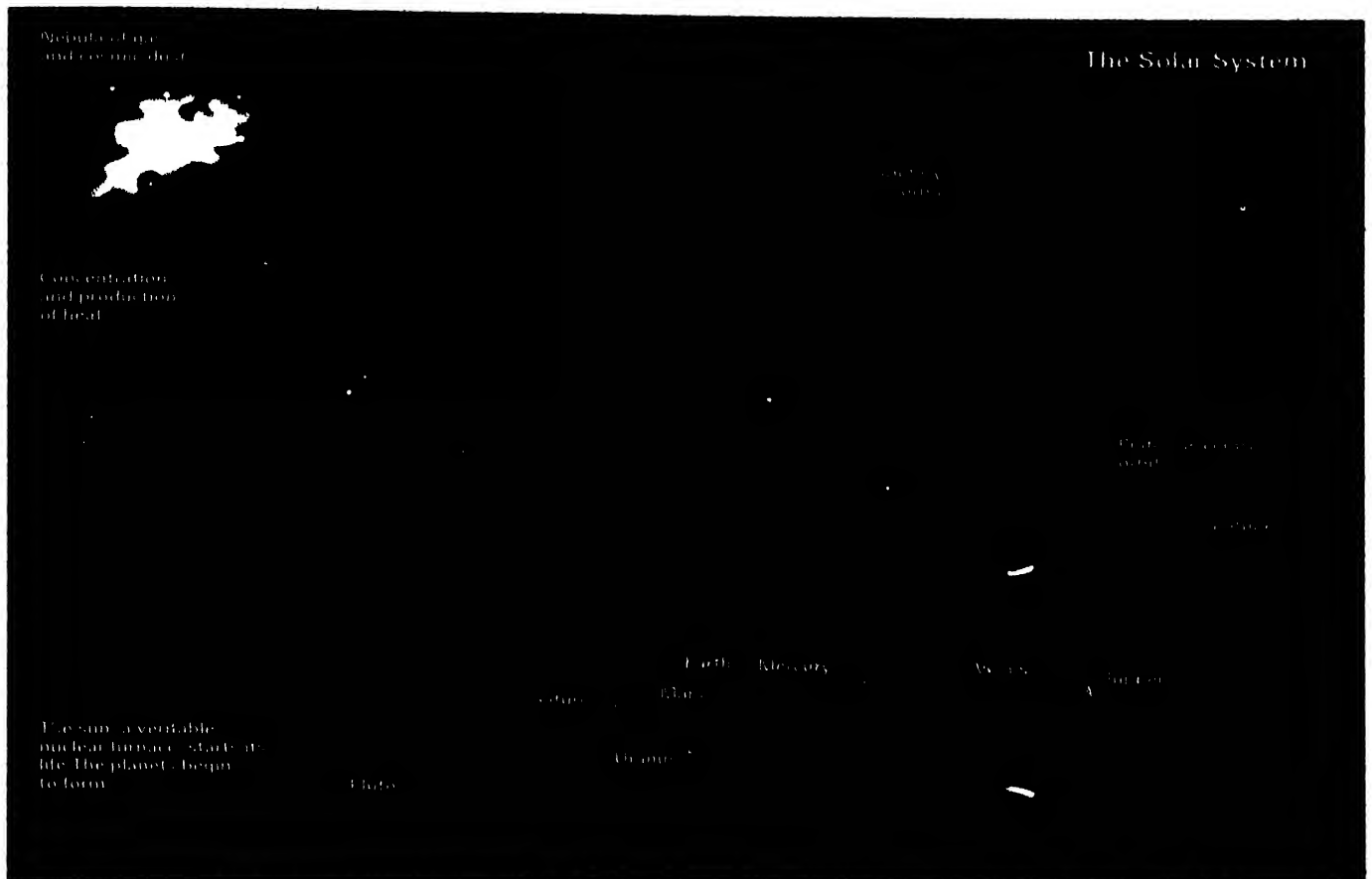
The Moon is worthy of particular mention: it is the Earth's only satellite, that is, an object held captive by the gravitational field of our planet and therefore subject to two motions: rotation about its own axis, and revolution around the Earth. A peculiarity of these two motions is that they have the same period: 29 days, 12 hours, 44 minutes (the "lunar month"). As a result,

the Moon always turns the same face toward the Earth, so that day and night on the Moon are each almost 15 days long. Since the Earth in turn revolves around the Sun, the Moon also participates in this motion, called "translation," describing a kind of spiral path along the Earth's orbit. The various positions that the Moon assumes with respect to the Earth and Sun during its revolution make it appear differently illuminated in the course of the lunar month. When it is between the Earth and Sun (conjunction) it appears completely dark, and we have a "new moon" (point at which the lunar month begins). Almost 15 days later, however, it is located on the opposite side of the Earth from the Sun (opposition) and its face is therefore fully illuminated (full moon). Hence the succession of waxing and waning phases of the visible portions of the Moon. At the first or third quarters of the lunar month (half-moon), exactly half the disk appears illuminated, with the convex portion facing west or east depending on the quarter. The Moon is responsible for eclipses: in the course of its complex revolutions and translations, it can find itself aligned in the same plane with the Earth and the Sun. If it comes between the two, it blocks the view of the Sun from some parts of the Earth (solar eclipse); if it is in opposition, however, the Earth's shadow will cover the Moon (lunar eclipse). The rarity of eclipses is due to the fact that the orbits of the Earth and Moon are not in the same plane (otherwise there would be an eclipse of the Sun at every new moon, and a lunar eclipse at every full moon), but instead constitute two planes which intersect to some degree. The mutual gravitational force between the Earth and Moon is also responsible for the tides.

But how and when was the Earth formed, and how did it develop? Raymond Siever provides some answers:

*These are the questions that link the testimony of a fragment of rock about the history of the Earth and the other planets to deductions drawn from astronomy about the formation of the stars and the evolution of the solar system.*

*The theories which state that the solar system formed from a cloud of gas and dust are still being refined, but they all share the fundamental idea that about 4.6 billion years ago, the Earth grew to approximately its present size because of a combination of two processes: condensation of the primordial material of the solar cloud, and aggregation of minute fragments of other planetary material that was in the vicinity. The ancient history of the Earth was characterized by uninterrupted accretion and a rapid increase in temperature due to a combination of three effects: heating caused by the radioactive elements that were abundant in the initial condensation product; heating due to the impact of material which then sank; and heating produced by contraction of the newborn planet. According to what has now become the conventional viewpoint, this increase in temperature led to widespread melting and massive differentiation of the Earth, into a core, a mantle, and a crust. All these theories, postulated long before the solar system was explored by spacecraft, have recently been refined by studies of the Moon and the other planets. This is particularly true for the Moon, where astronauts have collected samples from an object whose development halted at an early stage. With no atmosphere and no oceans, the Moon had no atmospheric agents to produce chemical alterations that might destroy generations of rocks from previous epochs. In addition, it did not offer an environment favorable to the development of life. A close examination of the Moon reveals how important the Earth's fluid coating of water and gas has been. Moreover,*

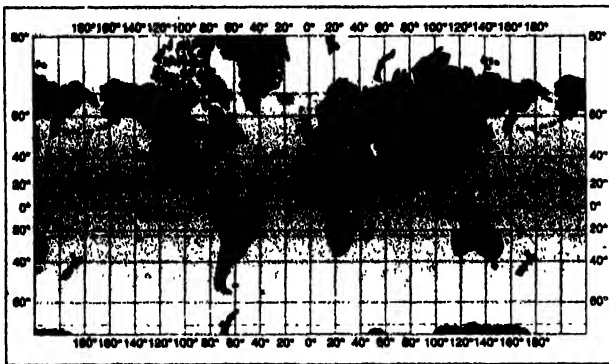
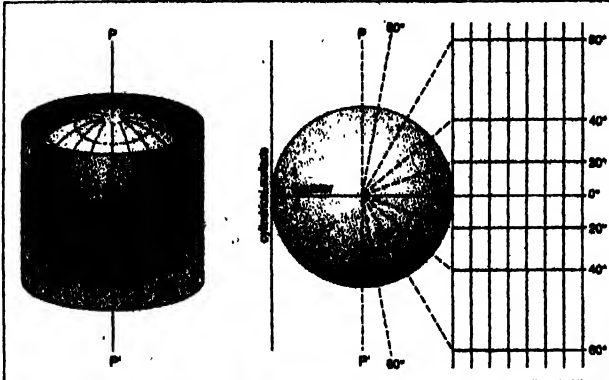




## Map Projections

### Cylindrical

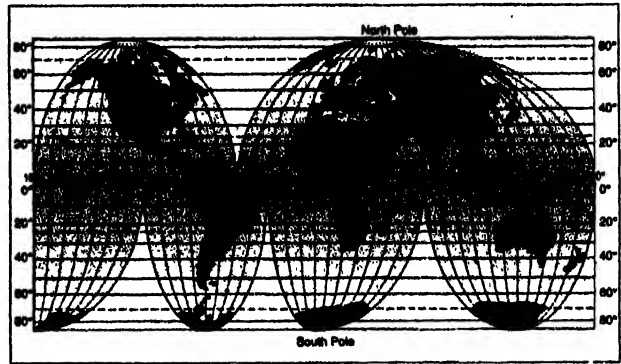
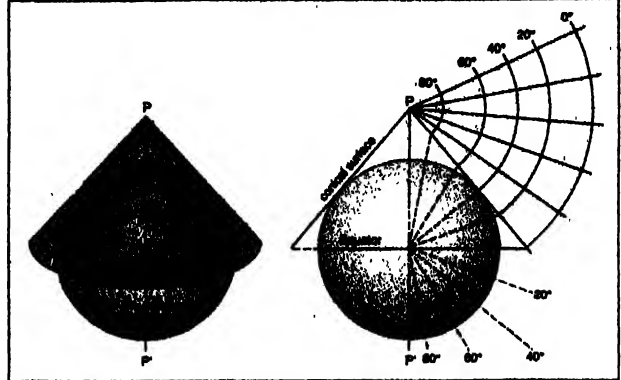
Part of the terrestrial sphere is projected on a tangent or secant cylinder which is then developed into a plane. The meridians and parallels are reciprocally perpendicular lines.



Mercator cylindrical projection

### Conic

Part of the terrestrial sphere is projected on a tangent or secant cone which is then developed into a plane.



Goode's modified conic projection

## Map Classification According To Scale



Plan (scale 1:10,000)



Topographic map (scale 1:100,000)



Chorographic map (scale 1:500,000)



Geographic map (scale 1:5,000,000)

*the composition of that gas was not the same as that of our present atmosphere. In its earliest phases, the primitive atmosphere was devoid of oxygen and contained reducing gases such as methane and ammonia.*

**Shape and dimensions of the Earth.** The spherical shape of the Earth was postulated by the philosophical school of Pythagoras in the 6th century B.C., and Greek cosmographers also made the first attempts to measure the circumference of the Earth using scientific methods.

Its shape is not actually a perfect sphere, but in fact is more similar to an ellipsoid of rotation—a solid produced by rotating an ellipse about one of its two axes (the minor axis in this case)—hence the description of the Earth as a sphere that is “slightly squashed” (oblate) at the poles. But modern geodetic methods, assisted by artificial satellites, have detected other irregularities, albeit tiny ones, that have led to the Earth’s shape being described as “geoid” (“Earth-like”). A small sphere or globe on which the outlines of the continents are drawn is nevertheless the most faithful representation possible of our planet.

The almost spherical shape of the Earth gives rise to many facts and phenomena that only modern science has been able to explain fully. For the ancients—who even after Pythagoras’ demonstration and down to the end of the European Middle Ages favored a disk shape, on which the landmasses were surrounded by a single ring-shaped ocean—the spherical theory presented the problem of the Antipodes: why did their inhabitants not fall off into space? It was a substantial problem until Newton explained it scientifically by way of gravity.

Although it required advanced concepts of geometry and mathematics, developed specifically by the Pythagoreans, an explanation of the various ways in which the Earth was illuminated by the Sun’s rays seemed simpler. In this context, it mattered little that the Earth was believed to be the center of the solar system: the effects were the same. And as mentioned, they were effects of great importance, explaining the alternation of day and night, the seasons, and climatic zones. Even the Greek word *klima*, “inclination,” took into account two concomitant facts: the inclination of the spherical surface from the equator to the poles, and the changes in the angle between the horizon and the Sun at the meridian at different times of the year.

To these geometric concepts of equator, poles, and meridian, the Pythagoreans added the astronomical ideas of tropics and polar circles, although they dismissed the possibility of human life in the torrid equatorial zones and the frozen polar caps. The reason it took two millennia for these theoretical concepts to be confirmed in practice and by the experimental sciences was simply that the technological resources of the time were no match for the sophistication of Greek theoretical speculation, and because the circum-Mediterranean world, where these theories had been developed, was isolated and had only very few sporadic contacts with other regions which were home to different but equally advanced civilizations, such as China or the completely unknown cultures of pre-Columbian America.

But a crude sort of technology was used in support of the first serious attempt at experimental proof of these theories, as in the case of the measurement of the Earth’s curvature undertaken by Eratosthenes of Cyrene in the 3rd century B.C. He selected a tropical location (modern Aswan) where at noon on

the day of the summer solstice the Sun shone down to the bottom of even the deepest wells (and was therefore at the zenith). Measurements of the inclinations of the Sun’s rays at a more northerly location (Alexandria), which was believed to lie on the same meridian, made it possible to calculate the angle of that inclination projected to the center of the Earth. At that point all that was necessary was to measure the linear distance between the two places to determine the meridian arc and therefore the Earth’s circumference.

There is disagreement as to the accuracy of Eratosthenes’ answer, but it is a fact that Ptolemy’s geography, transmitted through the dark centuries of the Middle Ages, reported estimates so much lower than reality as to justify the splendid error of Columbus, who was convinced he could reach Japan by crossing the Atlantic. Even after the discovery of the Americas, another century of adventurous navigation across the oceans was needed to give an approximate estimate of the world’s real dimensions and associate them, on those wonderful Renaissance planispheres, with an equally approximate and incomplete depiction of the outlines of the continents.

But the European powers were concerned less with dimensions than with the resources of the lands that were being discovered, while the common people were curious about the new and unexpected peoples, animals, and places, and shared the adventurous spirit of the explorers.

The need to quantify the size of the new colonial empires and to draw their borders required systematic surveying of the entire planet. The world seemed extremely large, almost endless, by comparison with the tiny size of the populations that lived on it and their ability to possess it. However, it was this knowledge which began the process that in three centuries would lead to the present “global village,” dominated by the most advanced technologies and wracked by the problems of development.

**The “geographical network” and the measurement of time.** The Earth thus turned out to be much larger than the ancient cosmographers and the geographers of the age of exploration had thought: an entire New World, the Americas, was revealed to the first navigators (Vespucci and Verrazzano among them) who followed the routes opened up by Columbus. There was no sign, however, of the southern continent about which tales had been spun since the ancient Greeks. Australia was believed to be part of that mythical landmass, which was supposed to extend to polar latitudes; but in reality it was found to be a continent unto itself, albeit the smallest. Another great discovery was the immense Pacific Ocean, and the realization that about two thirds of all the world’s surface was covered with water.

In France, only two hundred years ago, the first scientifically correct measurement of the Earth’s circumference was performed, and the decimal-based metric system was applied to measurements of distance; the unit adopted was no longer an anthropomorphic characteristic (foot, span), but the meter, which is a fraction (one forty-millionth) of the Earth’s circumference. At almost the same time, another great problem was solved: that of determining longitude. It was addressed with the use of a chronograph and used as its reference point a single meridian, known as the prime meridian, specifically the one which passes through the astronomical observatory at Greenwich, near London. It is interesting to note here that the division of a circle into 360 degrees goes back to the ancient Babylonian

civilization and was adopted by the Greeks, in particular by the school of Pythagoras, to whom we also owe the definition of angular values of longitude and latitude, both based on the same 360-degree division of a circle. But while longitudes refer to the prime meridian and its antimeridian (see below), and were reckoned from 0° to 180° east and west of the prime meridian, latitudes are calculated with reference to the equator (0°) and the poles (90° north and south of the equator).

Humans have always based the measurement of time on the apparent passage of the Sun, but only the universal adoption of a prime meridian (a word deriving from the Latin *meridies*, "noon") made it possible to standardize the number of hours in a day; the figure was fixed at 24, thus dividing the Earth into 24 time zones bounded by meridians 15 degrees apart ( $24 \times 15 = 360$ ) and always referred to the Greenwich meridian. Opposite this, in the middle of the Pacific Ocean, lies the 180° antimeridian, which constitutes the International Date Line for ships and aircraft that pass over it (crossing eastward, the traveler "loses" a day; crossing westward, a day is added). As far as the length of the year is concerned, as early as the 16th century it had been observed that dividing the solar year into 365 days resulted in approximately 6 hours being left over, so a day was added every 4 years (leap years). The months, on the other hand, continued to be based on the phases of the Moon, although in very imperfect fashion, since there are slightly more than 12 lunar cycles (each lasting 29 and a half days) in each year.

**Mapping the Earth.** The grid of meridians and parallels ("geographical network") already sketched out by the Pythagorean mathematicians thus acquired universal validity, while the new resources of geodetic science were gradually refined to ensure that every point on Earth could be specified exactly with reference to that network. This made it possible to produce a perfect model of the Earth, and with the development of surveying instruments, marked the birth of modern cartography.

The problems of effectively depicting a spherical surface on a plane had also already been addressed in the Classical period and passed on to the modern age. Many of the projections still used today are those developed in the Renaissance by geographers such as Coronelli, Blavio, and Mercator. The map-makers' task was enormous, considering the speed with which knowledge about the newly discovered lands was being gathered. Before the establishment of modern geodesy, however, even the more advanced countries used highly inaccurate cartographic methods. It was not until the 18th century that cartographers could take on the task of surveying, accurately and with mathematical precision, every object that could be depicted at various scales on a map, and developing conventional signs and symbols capable of representing them.

Within a suitably dense geographic network, the greatest possible number of reference points are identified by means of optical measurements with geodetic bases (line segments) established on the ground to an accuracy of millimeters. These produce trigonometric grids (triangulation) that can be extended over enormous areas and also be applied to determinations of elevation. The definition of a sufficient number of surveyed points in turn makes it possible to draw the "hypsothetic lines" (also known as contour lines) that, although abstract, are the

most efficient and intelligible way of representing relief, replacing the first crudely sketched "molehills." The advent of photography and later the ability to take photographs from aircraft produced a sharp increase in cartography, even for countries and regions that were recently discovered or had remained at the margins of modern development.

Today cartographers use surveys made from artificial satellites designed for that specific purpose, such as Geosat, which can also be used to monitor other phenomena such as terrestrial magnetism, vegetation, and various kinds of pollution. Also in orbit are meteorological satellites (Meteosat, etc.), whose images we see every day on television screens and which, with their continuous imaging, global coverage, and the application of digital technology, now permit short- and medium-term forecasting and have helped increase climatological knowledge.

**Maps and atlases.** Today geographical maps are a part of everyday life. One reason is that maps—those reduced, symbolic, and approximate depictions of the Earth's surface or portions of it—are so versatile in terms of scale, content, and expressive ability that they can reproduce an almost inexhaustible range of facts and phenomena: not just those relating to geography and topography, but also human concerns such as economics, culture, and society.

The first distinction to be made in giving a correct classification of maps involves their scale, or the relationship between actual distances and those depicted on the map. This relationship is expressed numerically as a ratio, in which the figure to the left of the colon is the unit of measurement and the figure to the right indicates how many times the unit of measurement on the map (an inch, for example) must be multiplied to yield the corresponding actual distance. Thus a scale of 1:10,000 means that one inch (or centimeter) measured on the map is equivalent to 10,000 inches (or centimeters) on the Earth's surface. The larger the figure to the right, the smaller the scale. By convention, large-scale maps (between 1:10,000 and 1:100,000) are called topographic maps; medium-scale ones (between 1:100,000 and 1:1,000,000) are called chorographic; and small-scale maps (greater than 1:1,000,000) are called geographic.

A topographic map would be useful for a walk in the country, a chorographic one for a highway trip, a geographic one for a long airplane journey (after which one would go back to chorographic and topographic maps when visiting smaller regions). It is a little like using different lenses to photograph objects of different sizes.

The language of maps is analogical and symbolic: a river will always be drawn as a more or less tortuous line (although on topographic maps the two banks may also be drawn with separate lines), but a city may be depicted with a sketchy outline of streets and building only on large-scale maps, while on smaller-scale maps the cartographer resorts to symbolic dots or circles of varying sizes depending on the importance of the city. The symbols on a map can be point-like (indicating an individual locality, a mountain peak, for example), linear (depicting the course of a river, the outline of a coast, or contour lines), or two-dimensional (representing the surface of a lake, a forest, a political unit, etc.).

Every map of this type would show the geographic network, or at least should indicate latitude and longitude at the edges;

maps are also almost always oriented with north at the top, and if not, should include an arrow indicating geographic north. Like all languages, cartographic language obviously has its own grammar and syntax. But it requires the assistance of traditional text for certain kinds of specific information, principally place-names. Numbers also find a home on maps, indicating latitude and longitude, elevations and depths. Lastly, legends and titles are also important, helping to interpret symbols.

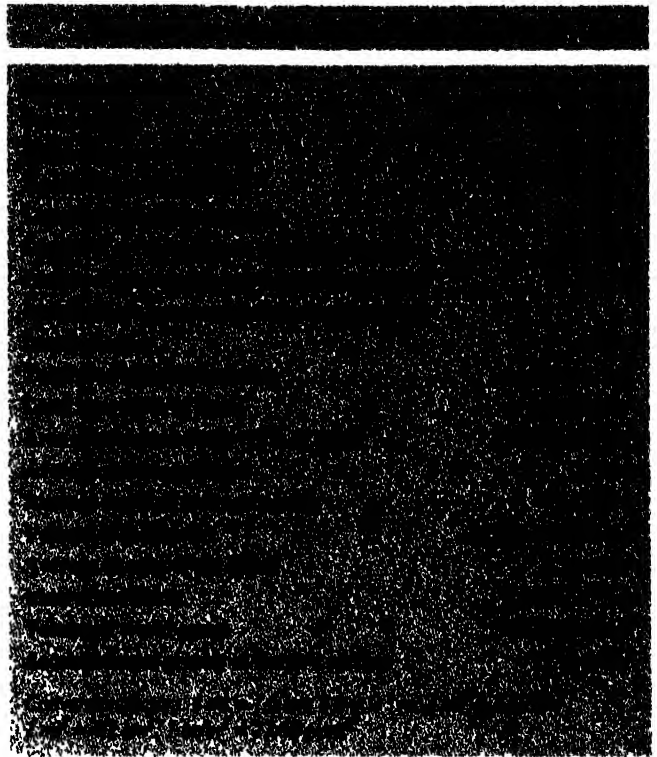
With the aid of text, cartographic language can express a number of subjects or topics aside from purely representing the Earth's surface, although they may have a certain relevance. For example, maps can represent statistical data, such as different levels of income or education or crime in various parts of a country. These are known as quantitative thematic maps, while qualitative thematic maps use different colors to describe geological characteristics, soil utilization, polluted areas, and so on.

Like nautical charts, weather forecasting maps are essential for ship captains and also for aircraft pilots, just as road maps are valuable for anyone who travels for business or pleasure. Then there are atlases (systematic collections of maps of a specific region or of the entire Earth), which help students to learn geography but also serve as updates for anyone who wishes to stay informed about events occurring anywhere in the world. And alongside the usual geographical atlases there are thematic atlases of countries or regions, which contain all kinds of information about them, from physical characteristics to demography, from social to economic phenomena, including comparisons with past situations or projections of possible future events (diachronic maps).

The smaller the world looks, the greater the need to understand it in all its aspects, in order to manage its resources better, to protect the quality of its environment, to reduce inequalities among its peoples—in a word, to learn to manage as best we can the planet on which we happen to live.

**The Earth.** The Earth's volume is almost 240 billion  $\text{mi}^3$  [1 trillion  $\text{km}^3$ ]; its average radius is 3950 mi [6371.23 km], while its circumference is almost 25,000 mi [40,000 km]. As we have already mentioned, however, the Earth is not actually a perfect sphere, even though the numerous irregularities which characterize its surface, both above and below the oceans, are practically negligible by comparison with its size: the maximum deviation, between the depth of the Vitjaz trench (−36,152 ft [−11,022 m]) and the top of Mt. Everest (29,100 ft [8872 m]), corresponds to 0.31% of the mean radius of the Earth. In other words, the Vitjaz trench would constitute a scratch only 1/25 of an inch deep on a sphere more than a yard in diameter! In addition, the Earth is slightly flattened at the poles and a bit wider at the equator as a consequence of its rotation about its own axis. The polar radius is therefore shorter than the average (3941 mi [6356.78 km]), while the equatorial radius is a little longer (3954 mi [6378.16 km]). Comparing the two, we get a ratio of 1:298, which indicates the Earth's "oblateness." The difference between these two radii is enough that it cannot be neglected in the preparation of geographic maps.

**Oceans and dry land.** The liquid blanket that covers the Earth, the "hydrosphere," possesses numerous discontinuities corresponding to large exposed areas of the Earth's crust. The Earth's surface as a whole (196.9 million  $\text{mi}^2$  [510.1 mil-



lion  $\text{km}^2$ ) is mostly covered by seas and oceans (71%, or 139.8 million  $\text{mi}^2$  [362.15 million  $\text{km}^2$ ]), while dry land, represented by continents and islands, constitutes only 29% (57.1 million  $\text{mi}^2$  [147.92 million  $\text{km}^2$ ]). These land areas are completely surrounded by water, while all the oceans are continuous with one another. If we then take the average elevation of the land area above the surface of the hydrosphere, it turns out to be about 2750 ft [840 m], while the average depth of the hydrosphere is 12,500 ft [3800 m]. Considering that the total volume of the oceans is about 329 million  $\text{mi}^3$  [1.37 billion  $\text{km}^3$ ], if the Earth's surface were completely level it would therefore be covered by a continuous layer of liquid more than 8200 ft [2500 m] deep.

According to current historical and geographic standards, the Earth's landmasses are divided into four major continental areas: the Old World, comprising Africa, Asia, and Europe; the New World, comprising North and South America; the Newest Continent, represented by Australia; and lastly Antarctica. As we shall see later on, this division deviates from the actual geological structure which characterizes the Earth's crust, whose continental masses have a very different meaning.

Another noteworthy fact is that more than two thirds of the planet's land area lies north of the equator, while oceans predominate south of that line. The oceans in turn are traditionally divided into three major groupings: the Atlantic Ocean, with an approximate area of more than 60 million  $\text{mi}^2$  [100 million  $\text{km}^2$ ], extending from the Arctic (a name referring to the northern polar regions) to the Antarctic between the Americas, Europe, and Africa; the Indian Ocean, 47 million  $\text{mi}^2$  [75 million  $\text{km}^2$ ] in size and bounded by Africa, Asia, Australia, and Antarctica; and the Pacific, lying between the Americas, Asia, Australia, and Antarctica and constituting the largest area of ocean on Earth (approximately

112 million mi<sup>2</sup> [180 million km<sup>2</sup>]).

**Elevation.** Leaving aside those areas covered by the oceans, the solid surface of the Earth is articulated in various ways, especially in terms of elevation. A fairly accurate idea of that articulation and of the elevational profile of the continents and the ocean depths is provided by a statistical graphic representation, such as the "hypsographic curve" of the Earth's surface, which shows the total areas of both dry and submerged land lying at various elevations or depths. An examination of this curve reveals the presence of two plateaus separated by an abrupt discontinuity: the first corresponds to the "continental shelf" which often lies at depths of approximately 650 ft [200 m], and the second constitutes the ocean floor itself, partially dissected by deep trenches, with scattered relief of various kinds (often isolated volcanic structures) and long lines of ridges. The step between is referred to as the "continental slope," and often represents a single drop in level of 6000–10,000 ft [2000–3000 m].

The topographical articulation of horizontal, convex, and concave shapes which characterize the surface of the Earth above the oceans constitutes its relief. It is more vigorous, the greater the difference in elevation between two nearby points; characteristic traits of relief include slope (gentle or abrupt) and shape, which is sometimes monotonous and sometimes highly articulated, and in general depends on the structure and the type of rock onto which the relief is modeled.

Horizontal forms are characteristic, obviously, of plains, which from an elevational point of view can be divided into "low" and "high" plains; these two may have very different origins, one alluvial, and the other erosional or structural. Concave and convex forms are occasionally found in isolation (such as isolated volcanic cones or river valleys that interrupt the continuity of a plain), but are more commonly associated with one another in various kinds of alternation. Convex relief types, such as mountains, hills, and massifs, are numerous and extremely varied in their form and structure. In general they are grouped together and often aligned to form "ranges" or "systems" of ranges (such as the Alps, Andes, Appalachians, etc.). The typical concave form is the "valley," which normally represents the element separating two mountains and generally has a watercourse passing through it. Other typical concave forms are "depressions," low-lying areas surrounded by higher relief. When they lie below sea level, they are called "absolute depressions"; a typical example is the Dead Sea, which lies almost 1000 ft [300 m] below sea level. Other typical concave forms are "basins," often located at the confluence of several valleys; they too are true depressions surrounded by mountains. Among the convex forms, the distinction between "mountains" and "hills" is generally a matter of elevation, the latter usually being less than a thousand feet high. In strictly morphological terms, a mountain has a summit, which can bear various names. A valley has a "valley bottom," sometimes narrow and cut into by "gorges" or "ravines," sometimes wide and flat. Lastly, mountains and valleys have one element in common: the "slope" or "flank" of variable inclination, which constitutes the connection between the valley bottom and the peak line or "crest."

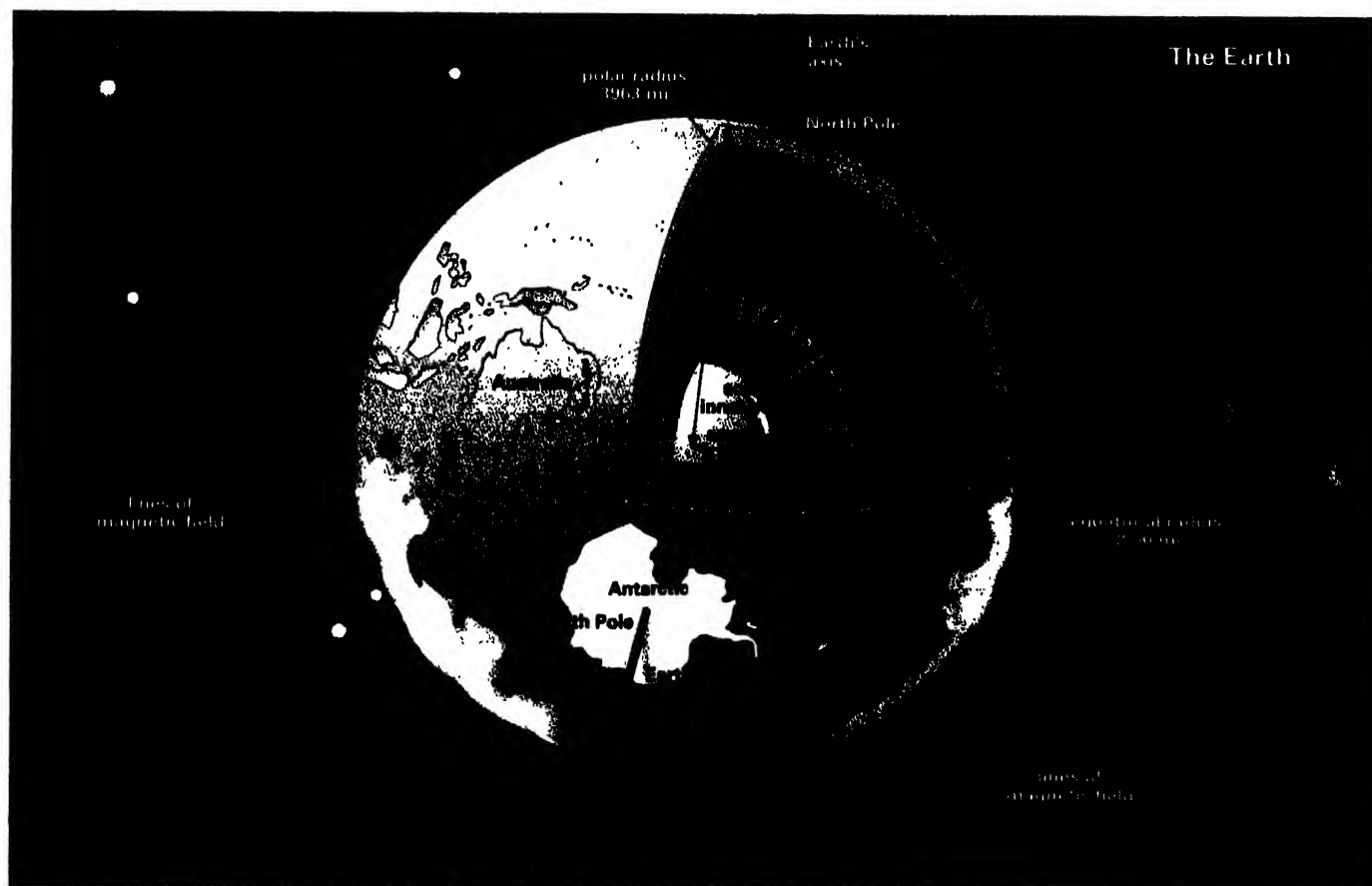
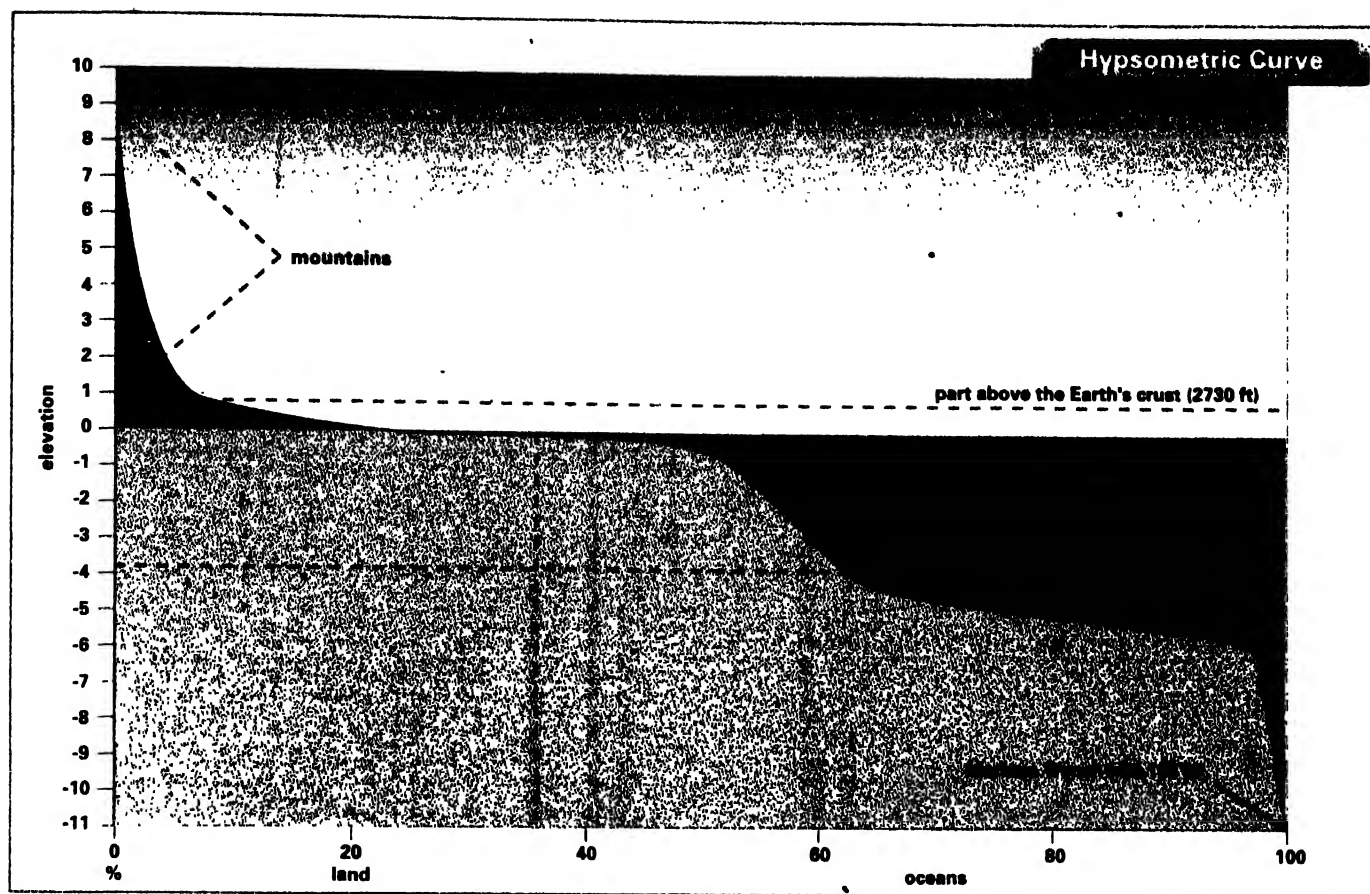
**The lithosphere. Internal structure of the Earth.** Although

humans have walked on the Earth's surface for many millennia, their direct knowledge of the planet's interior is somewhat limited, as compared with its outer integuments such as the atmosphere. This is understandable given the nearly impervious nature of the lithosphere, the outermost solid covering of the globe. It is true that natural caves do exist, and can be more than 300 ft [100 m] deep, while mines have been dug down to more than 6000 ft [2000 m] and oil wells have exceeded 26,000 ft [8000 m]. At such depths, however, the technological difficulty of advancing a drill bit is truly immense, given that within the Earth's crust (at least in its upper reaches), the temperature of the rock rises by an average of 1°F every 60 ft [3°C per 100 m]. This factor is known as the "geothermal gradient."

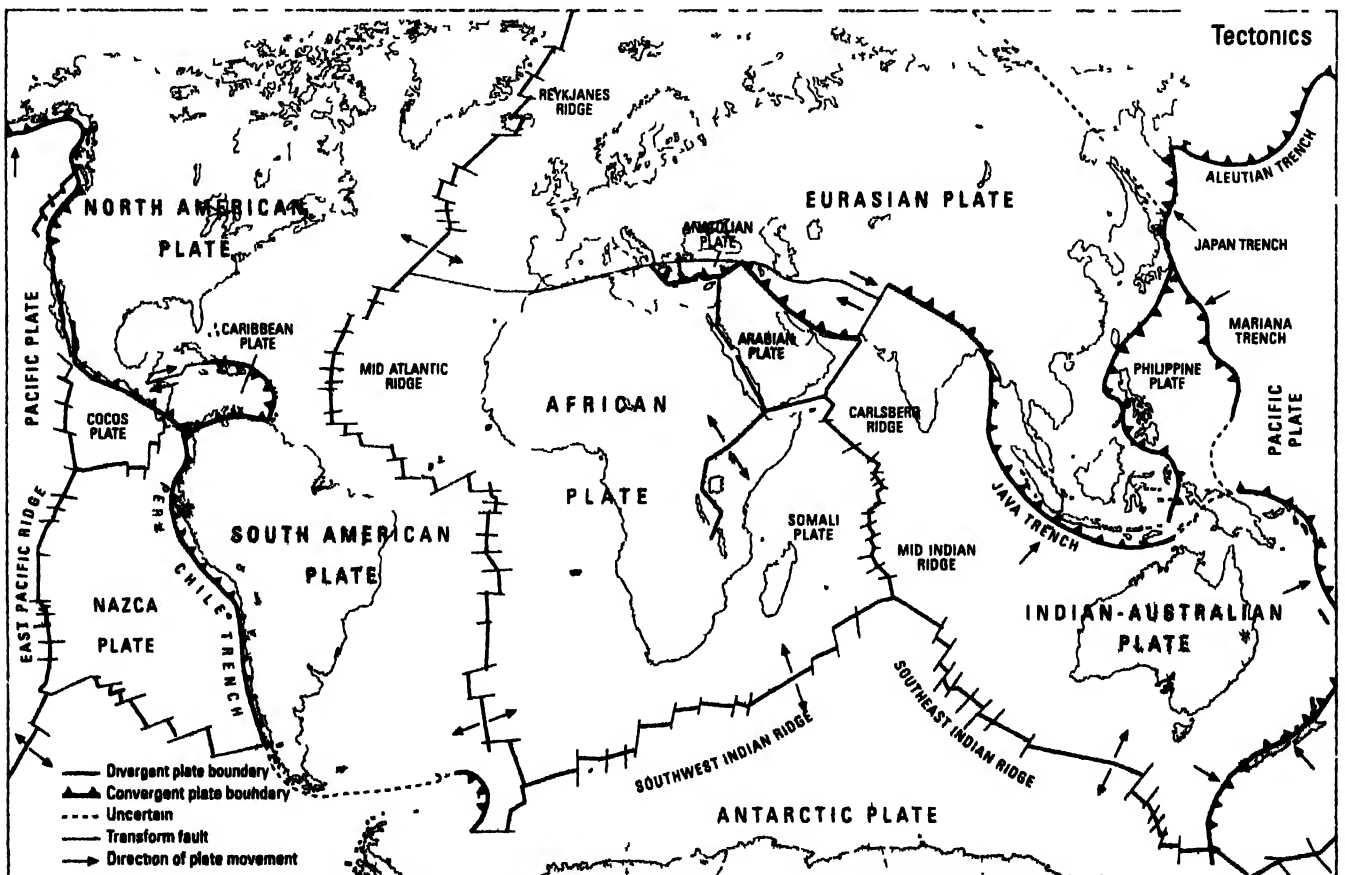
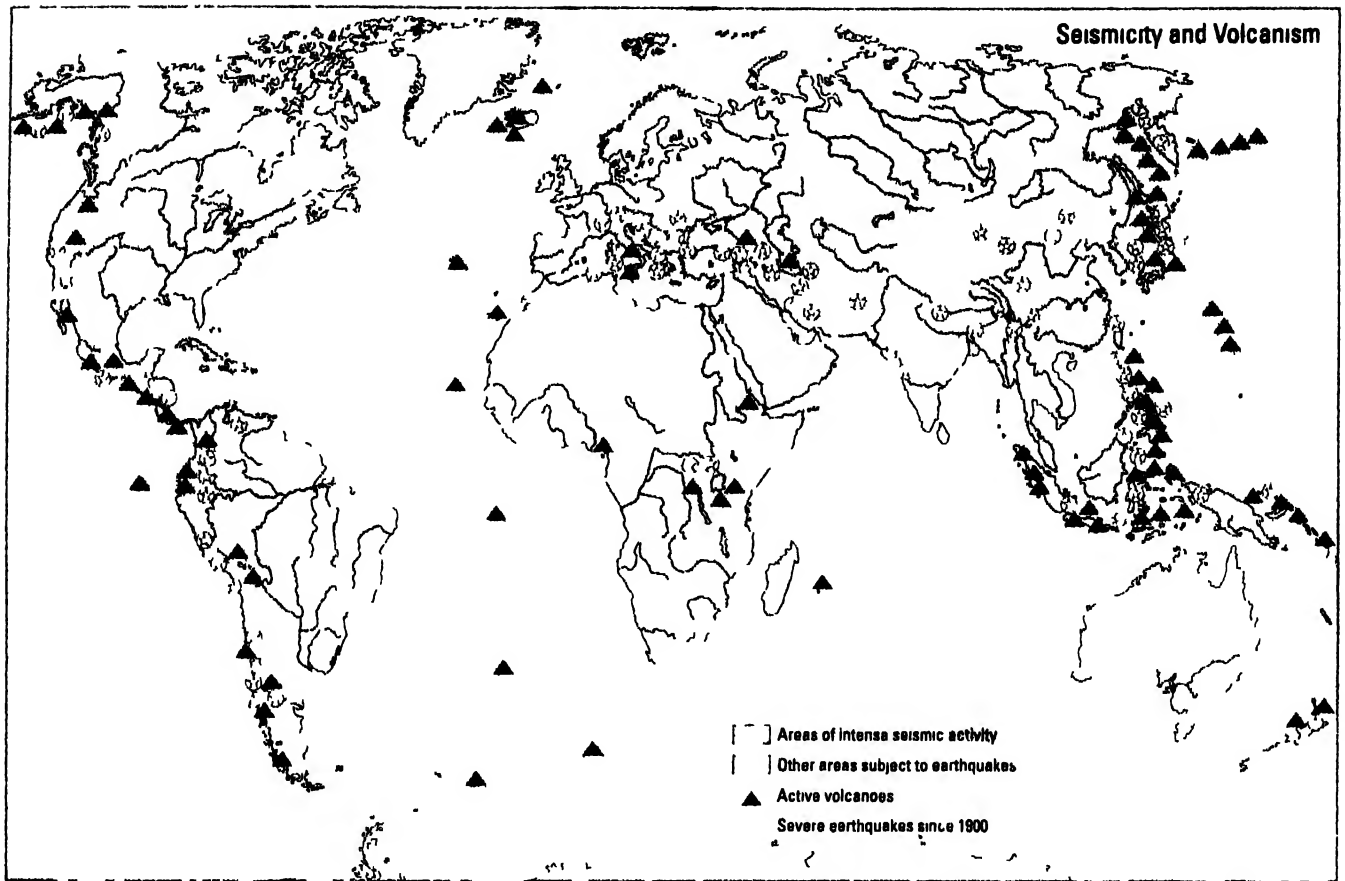
Better and more accurate information about the internal structure of our planet has been gained by analyzing the behavior of seismic waves: these are transmitted through the solid portion of the Earth when earthquakes occur (see below), and their velocity varies depending on the physical characteristics of the medium they are passing through. On this basis, reasonable hypotheses can be made about the density and nature of rocks at great depths. Since the specific gravity of the rocks nearest the surface is 2.8 g/cm<sup>3</sup>, and the average for the Earth as a whole is 5.5 g/cm<sup>3</sup> (as calculated from measurements of the Earth's mass), it has been theorized for many years that the innermost part of the planet must have a specific gravity greater than 10, and therefore must consist of heavy materials (iron and nickel compounds). These suppositions supported a hypothesis that the internal structure of the Earth consisted of a series of layers whose density increases from outside to inside. They are assumed to comprise a heavy "core," around that a "mantle" of lower density believed to contain oxide and sulfide minerals, and then on the outside the Earth's actual "crust," with an even lower density (2.8) and a thickness of a few dozen miles. The crust in turn was assumed to be formed of two distinct layers: the lower is called the "sima" (containing predominantly rocks composed of silicon and magnesium, such as basalt), and above it the "sial" (with rocks containing silicon and aluminum compounds).

The most recent models which attempt to explain the internal structure of the Earth do not differ greatly from the one just presented: they retain the sequence of layers (crust, mantle, core), but provide more extensive and more detailed information about each one. The separations between the various layers are revealed by "discontinuities" in the propagation of seismic waves, which are referred to by the names of their discoverers. The crust, for example, with an average thickness of 22 mi [35 km], is separated from the mantle by the Mohorovičić discontinuity (or Moho), while the Gutenberg discontinuity, at a depth of 1800 mi [2900 km], divides the mantle from the core. Minor discontinuities seem to indicate that the core itself consists of an outer, fluid part and an inner solid nucleus. The mantle is also believed to be essentially solid, with the exception of its upper layer, which lies at depths of between 60 and 150 mi [100–250 km] and is thought to be fluid (the "asthenosphere"). The crust and the outer part of the mantle, however, down to 60 mi [100 km], are solid, even though they contain large regions in which the rocks are in a fluid state because of the very high temperatures (2700–3600°F [1500–2000°C]): this layer constitutes the "lithosphere," the









solid covering which contains all the rocks that crop out at the Earth's surface and is the site of most seismic and volcanic phenomena.

**Seismic phenomena.** Within the lithosphere, movements of large bodies of rock can cause specific stress phenomena that can release enormous quantities of energy when they are resolved. This energy is transmitted in the form of mechanical vibrations, in other words seismic waves, which radiate out in every direction and also reach the Earth's surface. There they produce occasionally violent shaking of the ground, and are capable of changing the landscape and destroying or at least damaging structures built by humans.

The point in the lithosphere at which the energy release occurs is called the "hypocenter." The first waves to arrive from it (at a velocity of 3 mi/sec [5 km/sec]) are longitudinal or compression waves, followed shortly thereafter by transverse or shear waves (which are slower, traveling only 2 mi/sec [3 km/sec]). When they arrive at the "epicenter" (the point on the Earth's surface located vertically above the hypocenter), seismic waves produce vertical oscillations or shocks. At increasing distance from the epicenter, the oscillations tend to become horizontal (undulatory shocks); there are also cases of rotary shocks caused by combinations of horizontal oscillations. Until quite recently, earthquake intensity was assessed empirically, on the basis of the destruction of human structures that was caused (Mercalli scale, named after the Italian volcanologist and seismologist who introduced it in 1902); today, however, it is possible to measure directly the energy unleashed by seismic events, by analyzing seismograms that record the oscillation of a recording pen exposed to the shock received during the earthquake. From this can be calculated the "magnitude," the value of which is indicated on the Richter scale, named after the American seismologist who proposed it in 1935.

The geographical distribution of earthquakes essentially coincides with the location of the great fractures that exist within the Earth's crust, the major recently formed mountain systems (Alps, Andes, Himalayas, etc.), and regions affected by active volcanism. All of Italy, for example, is highly seismic, due to the presence of the geologically young Apennine mountains, Sicily, and part of the Alpine system.

**Volcanism.** According to the accepted definition, volcanic phenomena involve the emergence at the Earth's surface of fluid and gaseous materials deriving from inside the crust, in particular from regions in which rocks are in the fluid state, that is, have been melted by extremely high temperatures. Under such conditions they constitute "magma," a fluid substance at high temperature and with a certain degree of viscosity; its chemical composition is quite variable, and it also contains gaseous substances which help elevate its own pressure. When this pressure exceeds the strength of the overlying rock separating the magma (contained in a "magma chamber," generally fed from the large reservoir of the asthenosphere) from the Earth's surface, the material emerges, often in extremely violent fashion. As it does so, it also carries along solid materials, which accumulate together with other debris and produce the characteristic conical mountains that represent volcanic structures.

Inside each volcano is a "chimney" conveying the material

that will be erupted out, and a "crater," the structure which connects the chimney to the outside world. The gases in the emerging material disperse into the atmosphere, while the magma, depending on its fluidity and therefore its viscosity, flows at various rates down the sides of the cone, forming characteristic flows of lava (the term applied to magma once it has emerged) which very quickly cool and solidify. Shreds and droplets of magma are also hurled into the air along with the gases; these cool rapidly and fall back to Earth, some as lapilli, volcanic bombs, and scoria, others as an extremely fine dust (volcanic ash), which can accumulate to considerable depths and are then termed pyroclastic deposits or volcanic tuff.

When the volcanic ash is extremely fine and is lifted to high altitudes during an eruption, it can often be swept along by winds and transported for great distances before falling back to Earth; in some cases it may even travel around the globe. This happened during the eruption of Krakatau (1883) in the Sunda Sea, and also during the more recent eruptions of Mt. St. Helens (1980) in Washington State in the U.S. and of Mt. Pinatubo (1991) in the Philippines.

The type of volcanic eruption just described represents a very elementary theoretical model; in reality, a volcanic eruption is a much more variable and complex phenomenon, the intensity of which also depends on the physical and chemical conditions of the lava, the quantity of gas and its pressure (which generally results in an explosive eruption), the depth of the magma chamber, etc. In many cases volcanic eruptions can also constitute a serious danger to humans, especially when they are accompanied by *nuées ardentes* ("glowing clouds"), agglomerations of suspended ash, debris, and gas at high temperature (1100–1500°F [600–800°C]) which can flow down the sides of the volcano at great speed, destroying everything in their path. It was the emergence of *nuées ardentes* from Mt. Vesuvius, when it awoke after eight centuries of silence, that destroyed Pompeii and Herculaneum in the year 79, and similar phenomena were produced more recently (1902) by Mt. Pelée and wiped out the city of Saint-Pierre on the Caribbean island of Martinique.

When an eruption has ended, a volcano enters a quiescent phase, which can last for long periods of time; during this quiescence it emits gases (containing sulfur and steam) and becomes a "solfatara," so named after the phenomenon seen near Pozzuoli in central Italy. Vesuvius itself is also experiencing a quiescent phase following its last eruption in 1944, and is sending out only aqueous vapors (fumaroles). One phenomenon directly related to volcanism is the "geyser," a violent and intermittent emission of water and steam; Old Faithful in Yellowstone Park is a geyser, and there are also many in Iceland (an entirely volcanic island).

**Minerals and rocks.** The Earth's crust consists of solid materials called "rocks." These in turn are made of up aggregates of "minerals," chemical substances of usually well-defined composition that are identified by their crystal habit. Minerals, and therefore rocks, result from the solidification of magmas present within the crust and the asthenosphere as they gradually cool. When this cooling proceeds very slowly, the entire molten mass has a chance to crystallize; when it occurs rapidly, crystallization remains incomplete and the resulting rock will be predominantly amorphous.

Igneous rocks, which are those that derive from the solidification of magma, can form either within the Earth's crust in a fairly slow process, in which case they are called "intrusive" or "plutonic"; or they can form outside on the Earth's surface during a volcanic eruption, and are then called "effusive" or "volcanic." Among the most familiar intrusive rocks made up entirely of crystals are granite, syenite, diorite, and gabbro; effusive rocks include porphyry, trachyte, and basalt. These in turn are classified as acid or basic depending on how much silica ( $\text{SiO}_2$ ) they contain; the latter (such as basalt) derive from a highly fluid magma.

The first rocks that formed on Earth were undoubtedly of igneous origin; they constituted the primordial terrestrial crust and therefore the first relief that enlivened the planet's surface. The subsequent disintegration of these rocks by the usual erosive agents (especially flowing water) led to the formation and accumulation, at the bottom of the ocean basins, of huge thicknesses of detrital material deposited in layers. Compression and consolidation of these deposits then created new kinds of rocks, called "sedimentary," which eventually became exposed to the atmosphere when, in response to immense stresses within the crust, the ocean floors rose and emerged above the surface. Sedimentary rocks can in fact also form directly on the Earth's surface in the form of alluvial deposits produced by the activity of erosive agents (rivers, glaciers, wind, etc.). Often they also contain organic remains (of plants and animals), which over time experience profound changes and are converted into "fossils." When such fossils are present within sedimentary rocks, they can be used to reconstruct the environment in which they formed and to deduce the date of formation, supplying valuable information about conditions on the Earth's surface in the past.

Sedimentary rocks can be of clastic, chemical, or organic origin depending on their formation environment and mechanism. Clastic rocks derive from the accumulation of detrital material produced by erosion, and include numerous types that are classified on the basis of the dimensions of the individual rock fragments that constitute them and on their degree of cementation: conglomerates, sandstones, mudstones, marls, and sands are among them. Rocks of chemical origin, formed as a result of precipitation of substances that were dissolved in water, include several types of limestone as well as travertine, alabaster, and other types, along with salt deposits that formed by the evaporation of water in very hot environments (rock salt and gypsum, for example). Lastly, organic rocks are for the most part made up of the remains of organisms (shells, corals, and the like) that have generally accumulated at the bottom of ocean basins. The most important of these are the limestones and dolomites, but coal and lignite deposits can also be considered organic rocks. Liquid and gaseous hydrocarbons (petroleum and methane), which saturate porous rock layers, are also of organic origin.

Under specific conditions, both igneous and sedimentary rocks can be affected by severe pressures and high temperatures, and may even come into contact with magmas. As a result, they undergo physical, chemical, and mineralogical transformations which lead to the creation of completely different rocks, called "metamorphic." These rocks are identified by their predominantly schistose (banded or lamellar) appearance,

and by being entirely crystalline. Metamorphic rocks include gneiss, mica schists, marble (produced by metamorphism of limestone), and serpentine (derived from basic effusive rocks).

According to Eugenio Turri:

*Rock structures produce typical landscapes, since different rocky substrates are attacked in different ways by the external agents which shape the Earth's surface. The history of a landscape is therefore written in the history of rocks and of the Earth's crust...*

*The nature of the rocks thus determines innumerable surface features that influence the world in which we live, although perhaps it does not define the psychology of humans who live there, as André Siegfried believed at the beginning of the century. He asserted that the Bretons, who live in an environment of ancient granite rocks, have a temperament different from peoples who live in landscapes with sedimentary rocks. This is like saying that the Italians of the limestone Alpine foothills are different from those of the craggy Apennines. The contrast exists, obviously, and results from well-known historical factors. But who can say what tortuous paths history has taken?*

**Evolution of the Earth's crust.** Since the 19th century there have been numerous theories attempting to explain the evolutionary mechanisms of the Earth's crust, in particular of the continental masses that rise above the oceans. At present, based on the fortunate intuition of the German geophysicist Alfred Wegener, who began in 1915 to advance his famous but much-disputed theory of "continental drift," most geologists believe that the upper portion of the Earth's crust consists of a mosaic of huge plates which float on the mantle, some higher up (the present-day continents) and others at a lower level (the ocean floors). These plates move at velocities of between 0.5 and 4 in. [1–10 cm] per year, and when they come into contact—if that contact occurs at a velocity exceeding 2.5 in. [6 cm] per year—one of the two plates tends to slide underneath the other (a phenomenon called subduction), forming an oceanic trench, while basaltic magmas rise up from the mantle and feed new volcanic structures. If two plates meet at a lower velocity, folding along the plate margins occurs, resulting in the formation of systems of mountain ranges which generally consist of cores of igneous or metamorphic rocks covered by sedimentary rocks. The oceanic plates, in particular, are formed and driven by magma rising from central fractures, which build up undersea ridges accompanied by massive volcanic structures that often rise above the ocean's surface. A typical example is the Mid-Atlantic Ridge, which emerges at several points as volcanic islands and archipelagoes (Iceland, the Azores, etc.). The ocean floors thus tend to become wider, causing their adjacent continental masses to move apart; such is the case with the Americas, which were once (about 135 million years ago) joined to Europe and Africa.

**Orogeny and tectonics.** The deformations experienced by the Earth's crust as a result of the huge forces generated within it (stresses between rock masses, convective magma movements, etc.) produce large areas of folding, generally along plate edges. These folding phenomena, responsible for mountain-building, or "orogeny," have characterized many chapters in the geological history of the Earth's crust. The most ancient

episodes, which occurred more than half a billion years ago, have left very few traces: the mountains that they raised up have been almost totally worn down by erosion. The great mountain systems that articulate the Earth's landmasses today are of relatively recent origin: the highest ones which still have extremely rugged morphology (like the Alps, the Himalayas, the Andes, and the Rocky Mountains) formed during the last 40–50 million years (and some are still rising and are therefore the site of intense seismic activity), while those that are lower and have softer shapes due to prolonged erosion (like the Appalachians, the Urals, and the shorter ranges of central Europe) formed about 250 million years ago at the end of the Paleozoic era (see below).

The study of the structural conditions which characterize the various rock masses that crop out at the Earth's surface, and the movements that have affected them, is of particular importance; this discipline constitutes "tectonics," or the complex architecture according to which individual rock masses, and the relief that has been shaped into them, are arranged on the planet's surface. Bodies of rock normally react to dynamic stresses according to their plasticity and their structure: sedimentary rocks, which are generally stratified, tend to fold or to break (if they are more rigid) along fracture planes that geologists call "faults," which also are present in igneous and metamorphic rocks.

Sometimes bodies of rock, regardless of their nature, can be fractured into multiple blocks, some of which end up at a lower level than others. The result is the formation of a "tectonic trench," such as those which appear in eastern Africa and are occupied by the great lakes (Victoria, Nyasa, etc.) and by the Red Sea. Folds and faults can also have extremely complex positions and structures (tilted, overturned, etc.), and especially during folding episodes, entire rock masses are forced by tectonic movements to slide over one another (overthrust phenomena, horizontal faults, etc.) resulting in an essentially dynamic metamorphism.

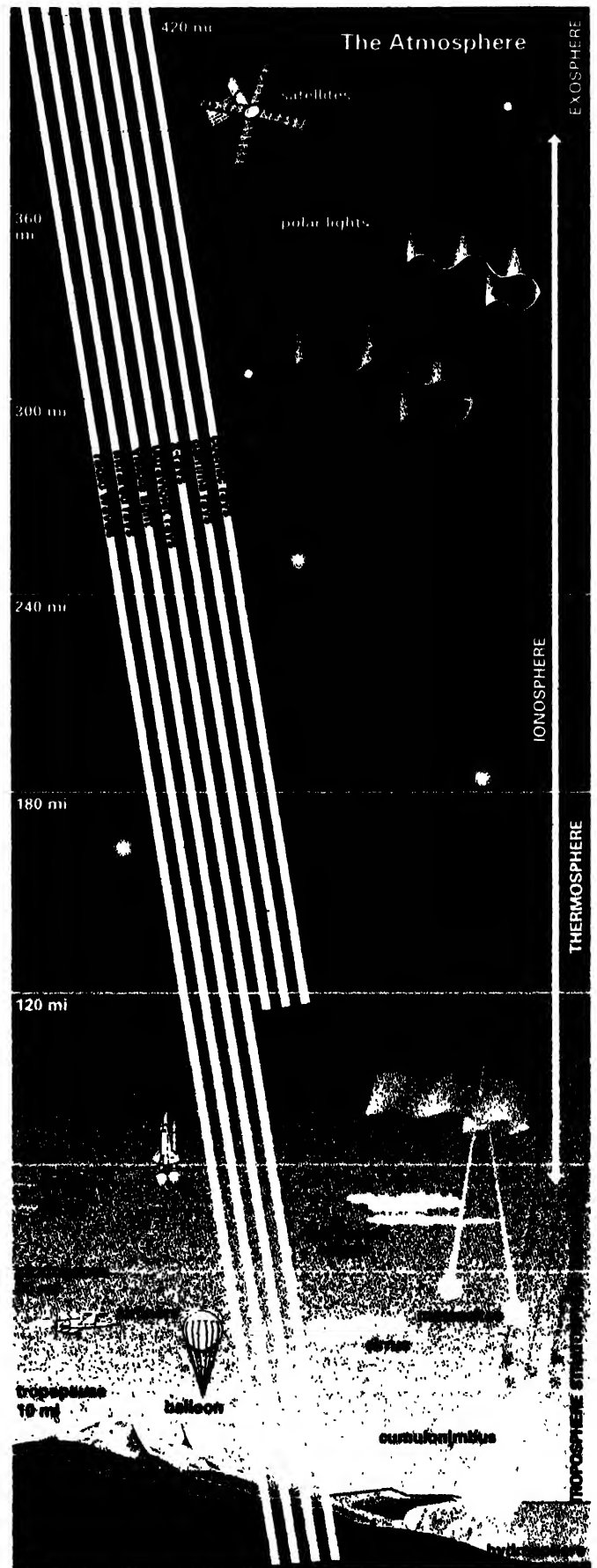
**Geological history of the Earth.** Without discussing in detail the way in which the Earth may have formed, suffice it to say that while Biblical accounts of its history indicate it was completed in only six days, today it is believed, on the basis of accurate scientific assessments, that the Earth's crust originated at least 4.6 billion years ago; the actual origin of the planet, undoubtedly linked to that of the solar system, must therefore be much more ancient.

This information is provided by modern absolute dating methods that are based on an analysis of the changes experienced by certain chemical elements. For example, it is known that uranium, present in many igneous rocks, undergoes a radioactive decay process. The  $U^{238}$  isotope, in particular, by losing a certain number of particles from its nucleus, turns into  $Pb^{206}$  on a specific time scale. By determining the concentrations of uranium and lead present today in certain rocks, it is therefore possible to deduce the time at which they were formed. This method has been used to calculate that certain uranium-bearing rocks in South Africa were formed about 4.6 billion years ago, while the granite of Ivrea near Lake Maggiore in northern Italy is only 280 million years old. These dating methods are complemented, however, by more traditional systems that can be used to determine the relative age of many rocks on the basis of the fossils that are present in them (whose evolutionary development is now known) and the rate at which certain sedimentary deposits accumulate. The evolutionary history of the Earth's crust has been divided into five major geological phases or "eras" of very different lengths, each comprising a certain number of "periods" which are further divided into specific intervals, identified in some cases by the widespread presence of certain organisms and in others by particular environmental conditions. The oldest and also the longest geological era (lasting about 4 billion years) is the Archeozoic, characterized by intense magmatic activity and the presence of only the most elementary forms of life. Among the many folding episodes that must certainly have occurred

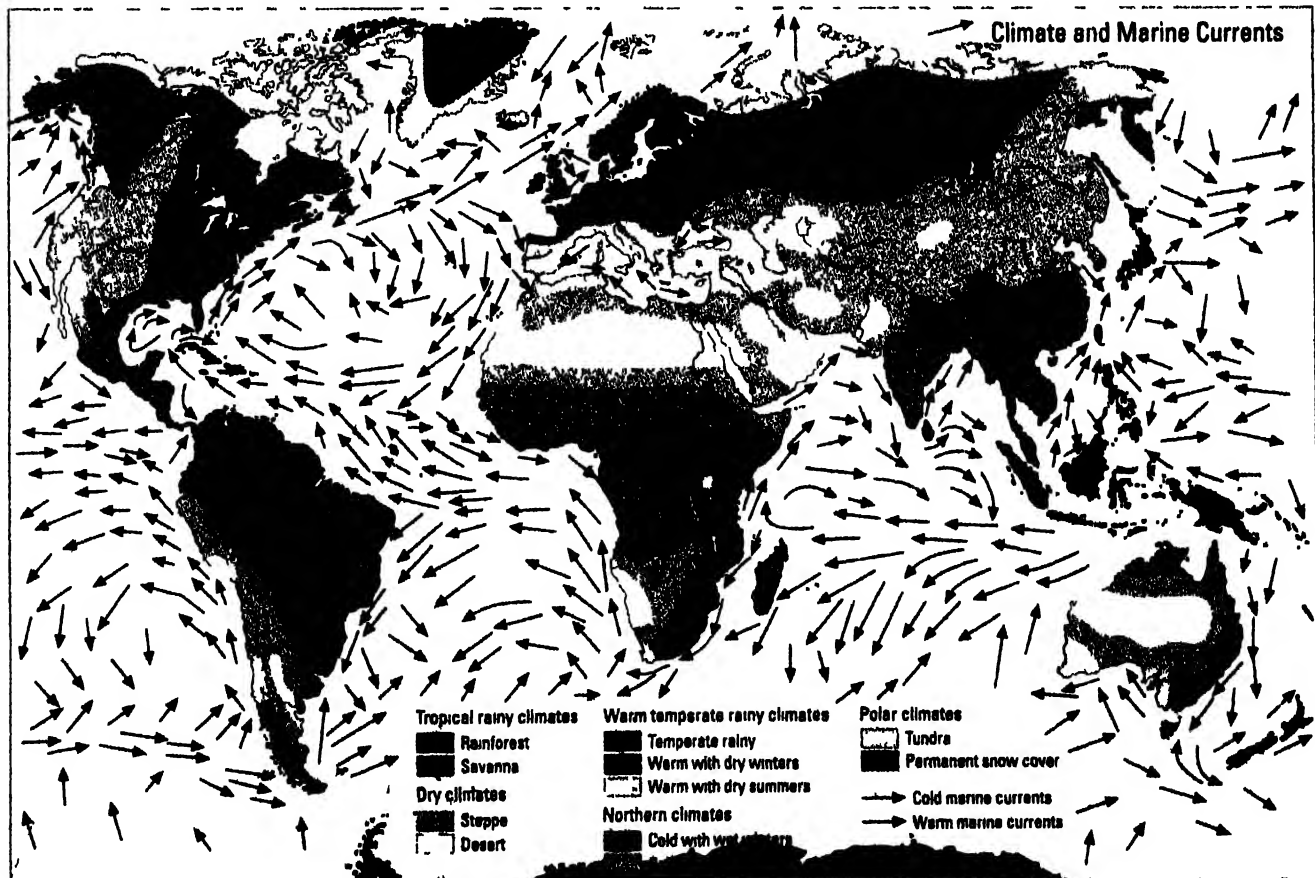
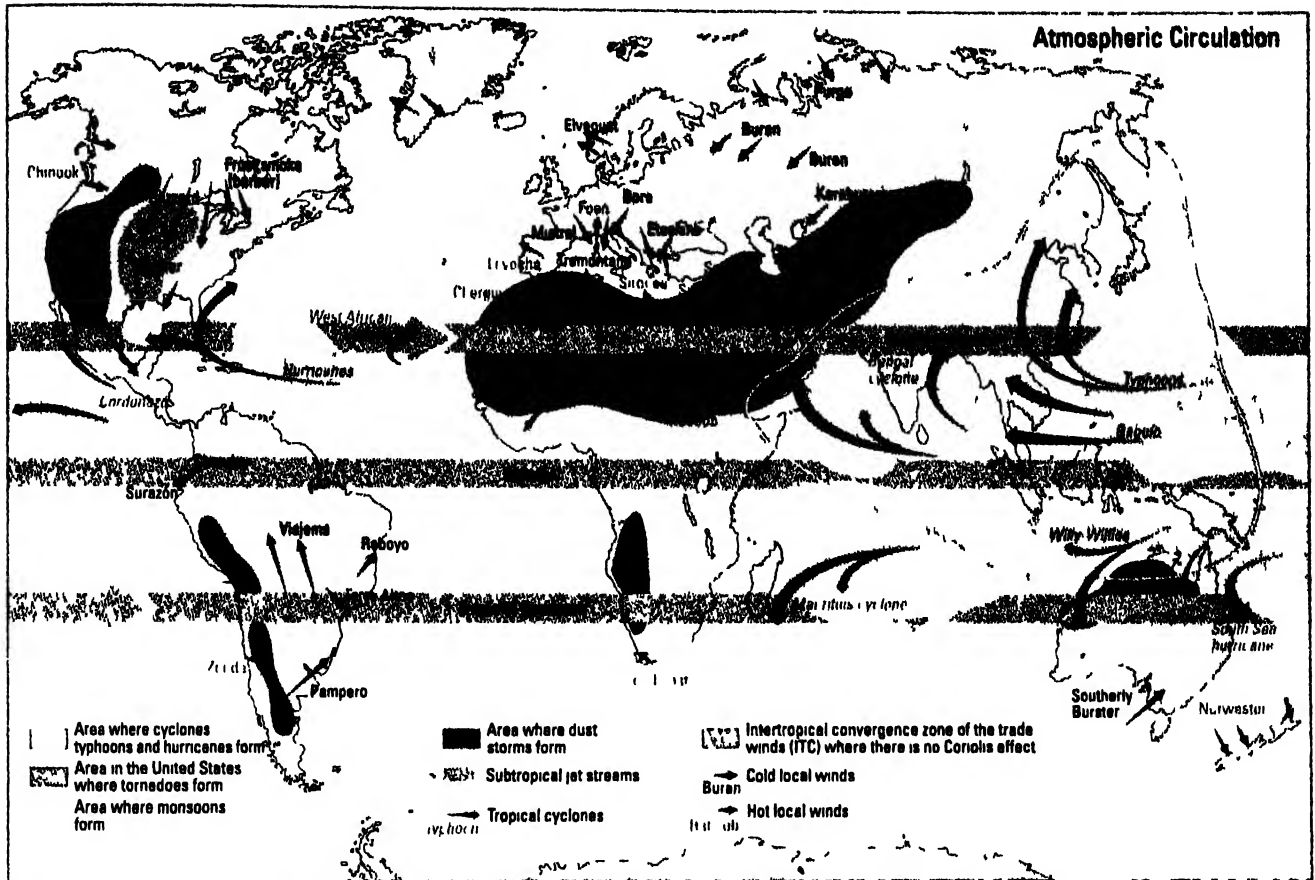
during this era, there remain faint traces of one orogeny, called the Huronian after Lake Huron. Events during the succeeding Paleozoic era, which lasted about 370 million years, are much better understood. It was characterized by considerable diffusion of living beings, especially plants, which toward the end of this era formed large forests which today have been converted into huge deposits of fossil carbon (coal). In the animal world, considerable development of marine invertebrates was followed by the appearance of higher species, such as fish, amphibians, and reptiles, indicating that life was gradually moving onto dry land. The principal folding phases are represented by the Caledonian orogeny, which occurred about 400 million years ago, and the Hercynian, dating to 250 million years ago and responsible for the formation of many mountain ranges that still exist. The Mesozoic era was shorter (160 million years) and characterized on the one hand by a great expansion in the oceans (Europe and Africa were separated by the Tethys Sea during this time) and on the other hand by the appearance of the first mammals, accompanied by the development of the dinosaurs (who then became abruptly and mysteriously extinct), other marine organisms such as ammonites, and the first birds. During this geological era tectonic disturbances were relatively modest. The Cenozoic era that followed was even shorter (about 63 million years); during this time the biological world experienced considerable renewal and the various species began to take on characteristics more and more similar to those of the present day: certain invertebrates (nummulites) were widely distributed, and mammals were abundant on land.

The Cenozoic era was also affected by the Alpine-Himalayan orogeny, which is responsible for establishing essentially the present-day fundamental structure of our planet's relief. This folding episode was also accompanied by intense seismic and volcanic activity, which has continued down to the present. The present Quaternary period began barely two million years ago. It is only since then that the evolution of higher mammals led to the appearance of the human species and its spread over the entire Earth. It was also during these last two million years of the Earth's history that major and repeated climatic changes have occurred, characterized by large areas of ice that have greatly influenced landforms. The most recent ice sheet receded only 12,000 years ago.

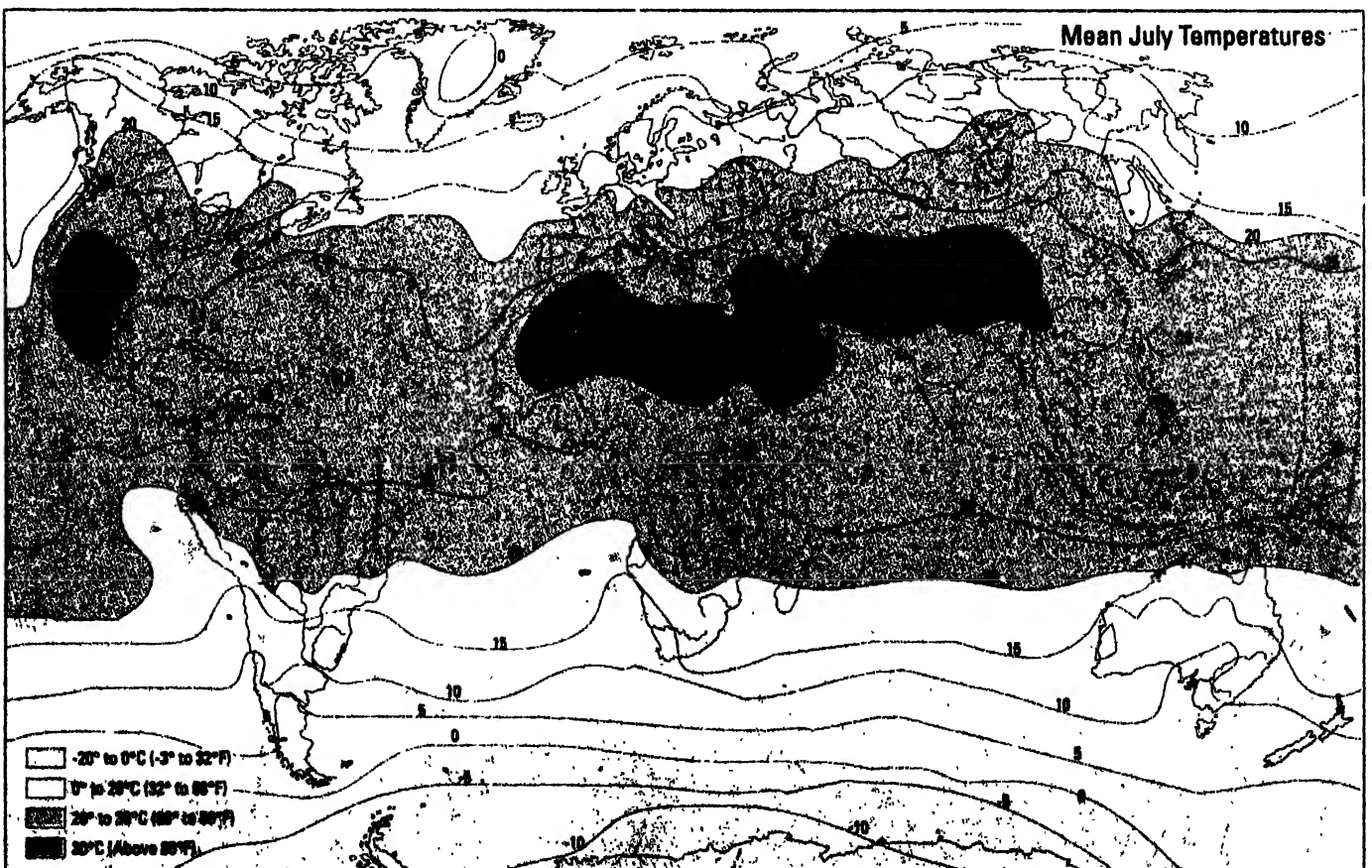
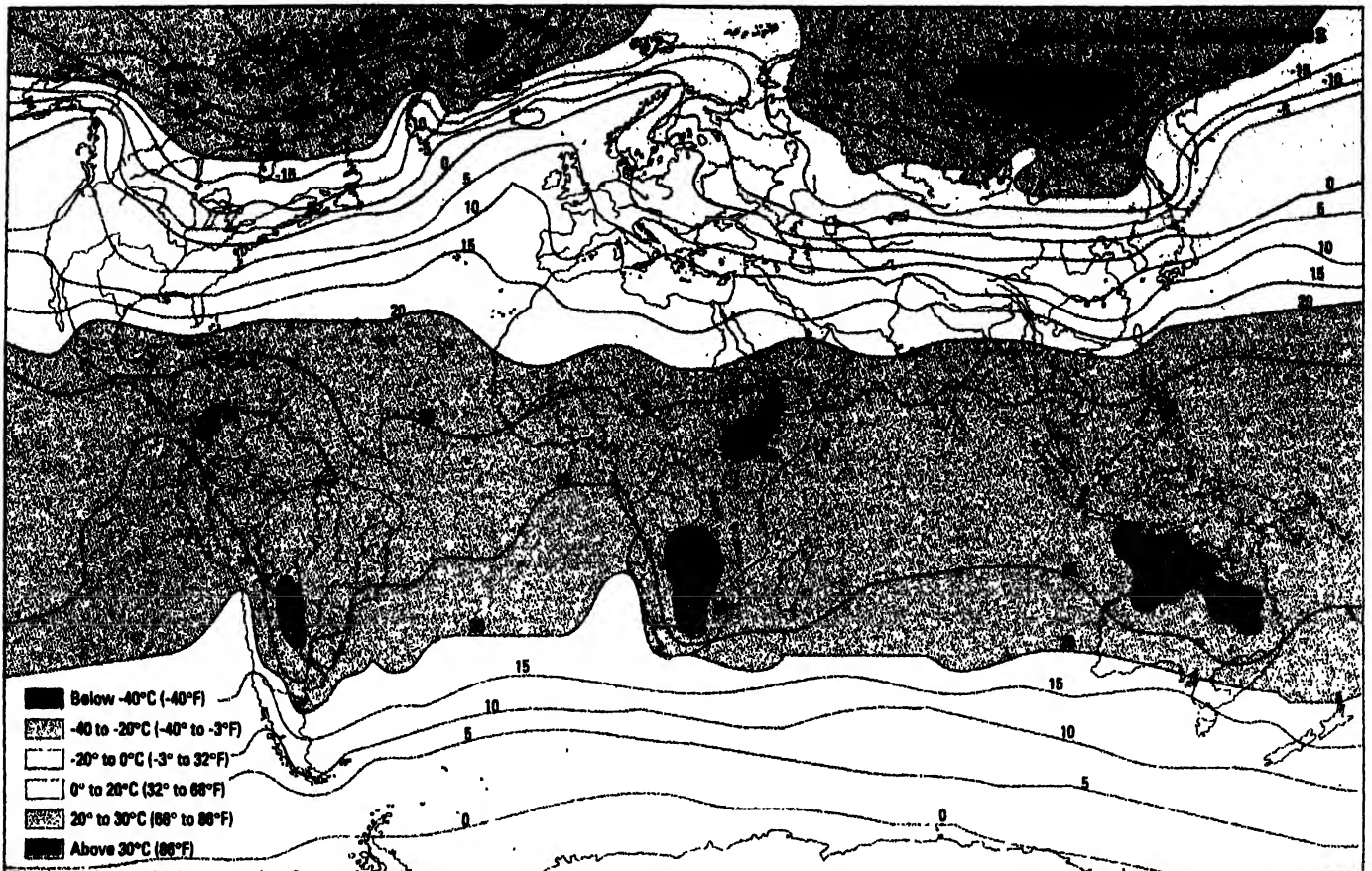
**The atmosphere. The structure of the atmosphere.** The outermost fluid layer that completely envelops the Earth's surface, the atmosphere, consists essentially of a mixture of gases (about 21% oxygen and 78% nitrogen, a little less than 1% argon, and minimal quantities of other noble gases, water vapor, carbon dioxide, and ozone). It is approximately 600 mi [1000 km] thick, with most of these substances concentrated in the lowest layers. These layers constitute the "troposphere," whose thickness varies from 5 mi [8 km] at the poles to 7.5 mi [12 km] at the equator; within it occur almost all the phenomena which most directly influence the Earth's surface and the organisms that live there. These include most of the movements of air masses that continually change weather conditions on local and regional scales. Within the troposphere, air temperature tends to decrease from sea level upward, dropping to very low levels ( $-65$  to  $-75^{\circ}\text{F}$  [ $-55^{\circ}$  to  $-60^{\circ}\text{C}$ ]). Above this











lies the "stratosphere," with an average thickness of about 12 mi [20 km], within which air temperature remains practically constant. Atmospheric pressure decreases to about a tenth of the sea-level value at the upper limit of the troposphere and to about a hundredth at the edge of the stratosphere. The upper layer of the stratosphere, called the "mesosphere," is about 30 mi [50 km] thick; within it, temperature rises considerably for a certain distance before dropping again, at the upper edge, to about  $-100$  to  $-110^{\circ}\text{F}$  [ $-75^{\circ}$  to  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$ ]. Above this begins the "ionosphere," where temperature rises indefinitely and atmospheric pressure decreases to practically negligible values. The pressure at sea level is 29.92 in. Hg [1013 millibars], equivalent to the weight of a column of mercury 29.92 in. [760 mm] high with an area of 0.155 in<sup>2</sup> [1 cm<sup>2</sup>].

It should also be remembered that specific phenomena and conditions occur in the various layers of the atmosphere. The upper stratosphere, for example, contains a substantial quantity of ozone (an allotropic form of oxygen with a triatomic molecule); this gas absorbs ultraviolet radiation emitted by the Sun, thus acting as a protective shield for the Earth's surface and for living organisms. The ionosphere, on the other hand, is the scene of phenomena such as the auroras.

**Tropospheric phenomena.** The troposphere is particularly dense as compared with the remainder of the atmosphere (and contains three quarters of its mass); it is also distinguished by the homogeneity of its composition and the regularity with which physical parameters such as temperature and pressure change within it. The negative gradient of these two magnitudes is approximately  $3^{\circ}\text{F}$  per 1000 ft [ $6^{\circ}\text{C}$  per 1000 m] for temperature and 0.9 in. Hg per 1000 ft [100 millibars per 1000 m] for pressure, obviously under standard conditions (in the absence of meteorological disturbances).

Although it is clear why pressure decreases with altitude, the same is not true for temperature. A certain amount of energy arrives from the Sun at the outer edge of the atmosphere; about half of it (51%) manages to reach the Earth's surface either directly or indirectly, while some is absorbed by the atmosphere and powers the processes that occur there, and some is reflected outward. The energy absorbed by the Earth is in turn fed back into the atmosphere, which is thus heated from below. The heat emitted by the Earth can also be retained by particularly dense atmospheric layers or even by clouds, and reflected back toward the ground, in what is known as the "greenhouse effect."

The spherical shape of the Earth is the principal reason why air pressure and temperature change not only with altitude, but also with latitude. Temperature tends to decrease continuously from the equator toward the poles, and diametrically opposite situations therefore occur in the two hemispheres (as a consequence of the inclination of the Earth's rotation axis with respect to the plane of the ecliptic). Pressure experiences similar but less obvious changes: the low temperatures at the poles mean that the air is generally cold, and therefore denser than in the temperate and intertropical zones. In addition, the presence of huge areas of liquid, such as the oceans and seas, continually replenishes atmospheric moisture by means of evaporation, which is more intense in hotter areas. As a consequence one can identify, again within the context of the troposphere, a series of air masses with different chemical and physical characteristics that are closely linked to the nature of the geo-

graphic areas over which they are normally located. An air mass located above an ocean, for example, is generally moist, and one located above the intertropical zone is obviously warm.

When two air masses with different chemical and physical characteristics meet, meteorological disturbances of occasionally substantial size can occur in the contact zone (called a "front"). Usually a moving air mass is referred to by way of the advancing frontal surface: we therefore talk about cold front and warm fronts, or polar fronts and tropical fronts. Looking at the barometric conditions of an air mass, we find that they are not necessarily always constant; a pressure gradient may be present, for example, forming two distinct zones at higher and lower pressure (referred to respectively as an "anticyclone" or "high" and a "cyclone," "low," or "depression"), in which the air takes on a rotary motion, divergent in the first case and convergent in the second. Air also tends to move from the anticyclonic to the cyclonic part until pressure equilibrium is restored. This mechanism, which can be regulated by temperature (since heated air expands, becomes lighter, and tends to rise, while cold air contracts and tends to sink), is often also triggered by dynamic processes which in turn result from local or planetary phenomena. Such is the case with the "chinook," a wind triggered by the eastward passage of a depression across the Rocky Mountains; air flows down the eastern slope, becomes compressed, and heats up, causing rapid melting of snow and ice. Certain regularly occurring winds called "breezes" are also of purely local significance: they result from differences in temperature and therefore pressure which are present along coastlines (sea and land breezes), or along mountain slopes (mountain and valley breezes).

In more global terms, it is possible to set forth a general outline of atmospheric circulation within the troposphere. Low pressure areas, with rising air currents, predominate at the equator; a zone of high pressure, predominantly over the oceans, extends to the tropics; low pressure again prevails near the Arctic and Antarctic Circles, while permanent high pressure masses are located at the two poles; lastly, the great continental air masses are dominated by high pressure in winter and low pressure in summer. Although this outline suggests a fairly rigid circulation pattern, it is in fact modified by other situations, some of them familiar since antiquity and others discovered only recently. The intertropical zones are characterized by winds which blow toward the equator, diverted to the west by the Earth's rotation. These are the "trade winds," so called since ancient times; they blow all year, with fluctuations in latitude depending on the Sun's maximum elevation through the year. Also present in the tropical zone are the "monsoons," once believed to represent breezes on a vast scale. In fact, they are governed by the westward equatorial air current and by oscillations in the trade winds, which are forced to change direction when they cross the equator.

Certain phenomena observed during World War II led to the discovery of two gigantic atmospheric flows that move from west to east at middle latitudes in both hemispheres: these are the "jet streams," which move at speeds of 185–250 mph [300–400 km/h] and altitudes that vary from 13,000 to 26,000 ft [4000–8000 m], with considerable variation in latitude. Instead of moving in a straight line, they meander like snakes, forming a series of curves that are often so close together as to produce

rotary motions or eddies; these give rise to anticyclonic and cyclonic cells which always move from west to east, although much more slowly. The jet streams appear to play an important role with regard to certain winds closer to the surface, such as the familiar westerlies that blow constantly from west to east in the middle latitudes.

One particular atmospheric phenomenon that occurs especially in the tropics consists of tropical storms, also called "hurricanes" or "typhoons." There are cyclonic disturbances that form over the oceans and then move toward island groups and continents farther west, where they release their enormous quantities of energy embodied in wind speeds of between 60 and 185 mph [100–300 km/h].

The presence in the troposphere of even a small quantity of water in the form of vapor (humidity) engenders some very important effects, especially insofar as the Earth's surface and living beings are concerned. Derived from the evaporation of ocean and sea water, but also from the continents and from the transpiration of plant life, atmospheric moisture exists in this environment in a rather unstable equilibrium, since its concentration depends on air temperature. The warmer the air, the greater the amount of moisture it can hold, while even a slight cooling of the atmosphere can result in sudden condensation of the moisture that it contains. As it condenses, the moisture converts into the liquid state, so that the water vapor becomes tiny droplets of water so light that they float in the air, sometimes forming the gigantic accumulations we call clouds. As many droplets merge together, they create larger and heavier drops which fall to the ground as rain. This, in oversimplified terms, is the mechanism by which precipitation occurs; it can involve a variety of processes and forms, including solids (snow and hail). The mechanism that leads to the condensation of atmospheric moisture can also proceed in numerous ways, for example, moist air can be cooled if it rises due to convection or if it comes into contact with colder air.

**Weather and climate.** The terms "weather" and "climate" are used quite routinely to refer to both local and general meteorological conditions, although the two words have very specific and different meanings. Weather is generally understood to mean the meteorological conditions (expressed as precise values for certain parameters such as temperature, pressure, relative humidity, and cloud cover) existing at a specific point on the Earth's surface at a particular moment. For example, stating that at 3:00 p.m. on July 14, 1989, the temperature as measured at the Observatory in Paris was 77°F [25°C], the pressure 29.83 in. Hg [1010 mb], and the relative humidity 85%, does not mean that those conditions remained the same for the entire day at that location. "Weather" is therefore a real concept referring to a situation that may be transitory, but can readily be measured with the right instruments; it is therefore an entirely objective fact.

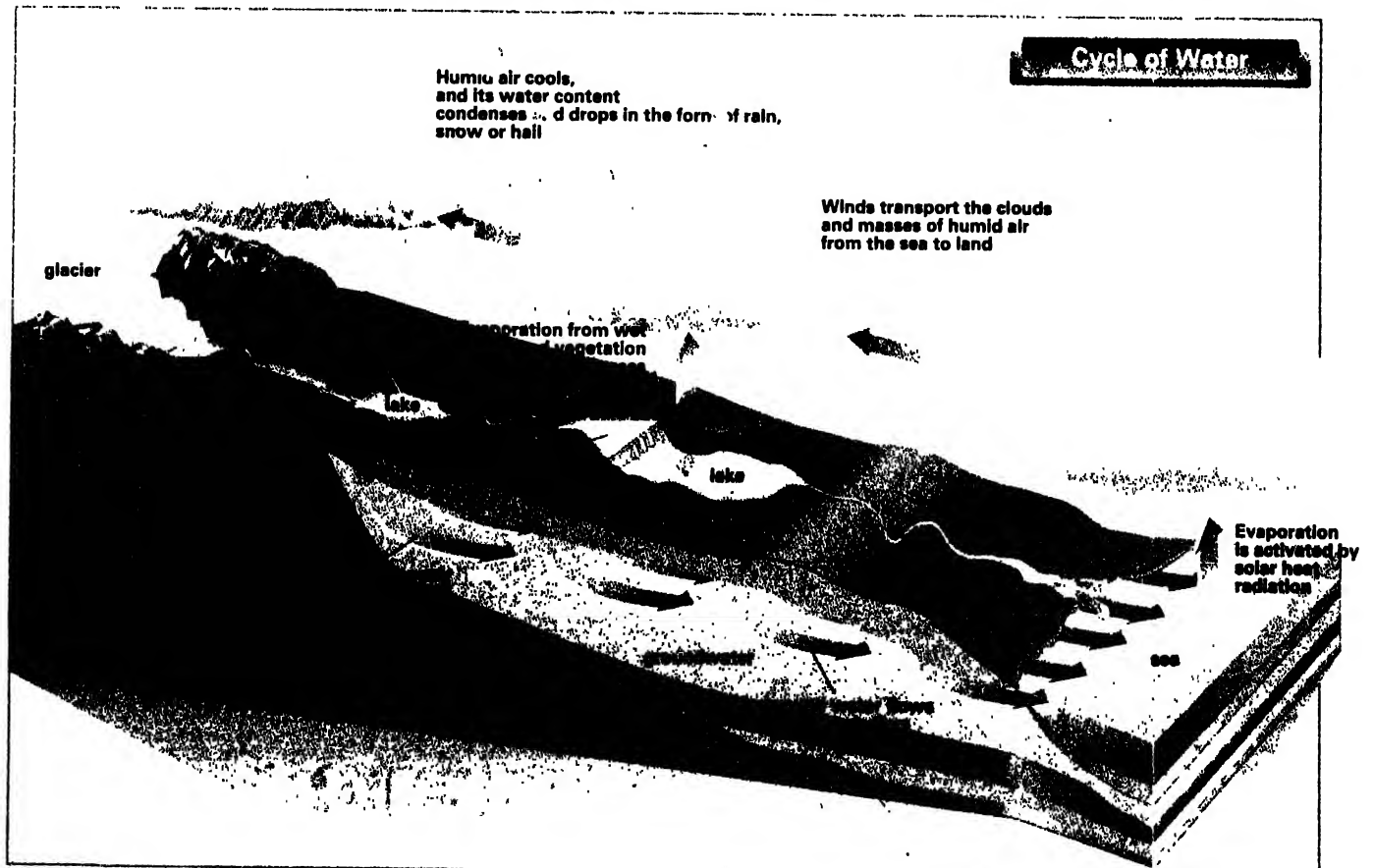
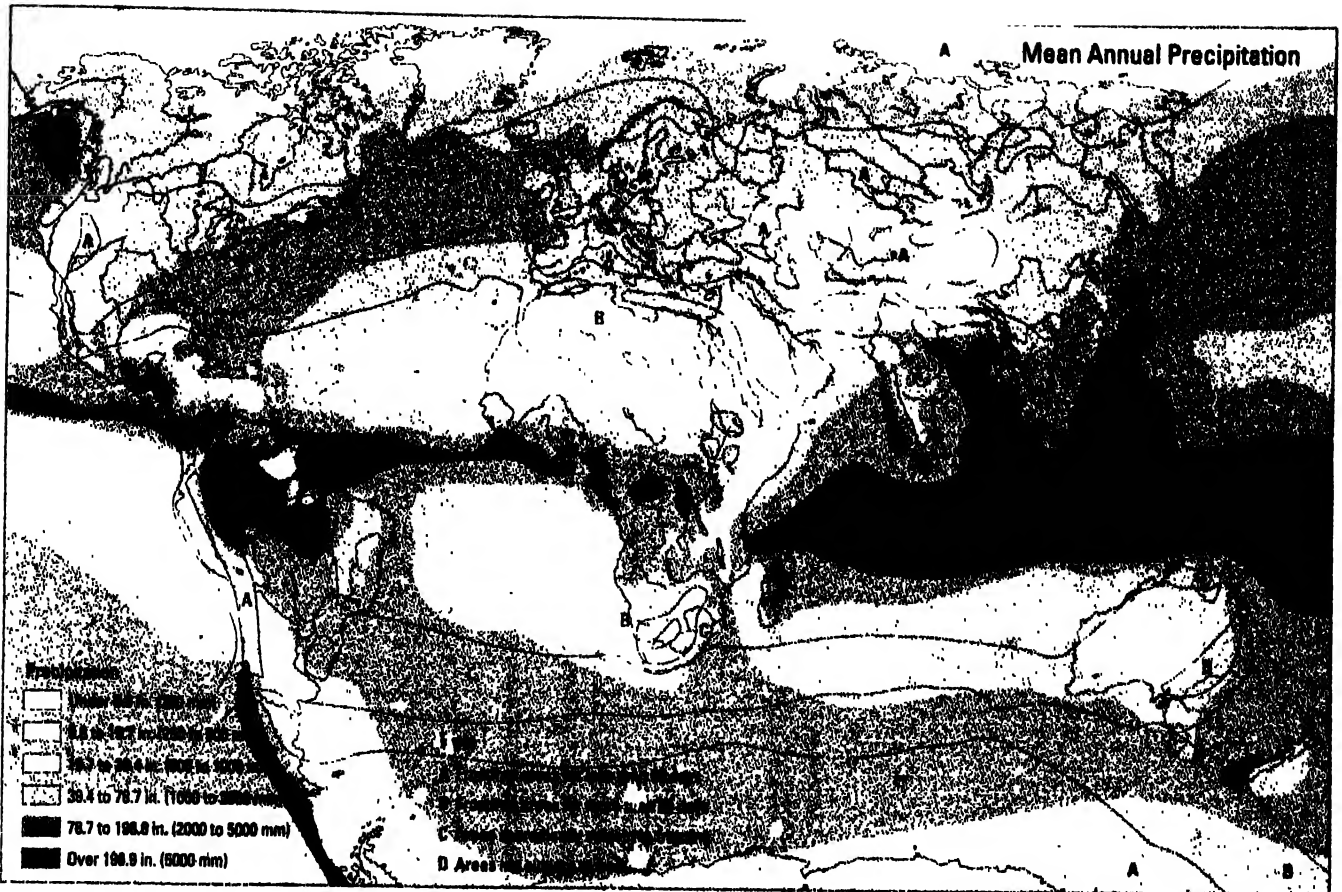
The concept of climate, however, is very different: this word means the average state of the atmosphere (construed as its basic parameters such as temperature, pressure, and humidity, the latter expressed in the form of precipitation) that characterizes a particular portion of the Earth's surface over an entire year and tends to repeat itself, albeit with some variations, in succeeding years, to the point that it becomes a geographical component of the territory in question. Thus even if it is based

on concrete observations (the sum total of all the types of weather that occur during a year at the various points within a single territory, and then the manner in which they repeat over a period of many years), the concept of climate takes on a predominantly subjective and to some extent abstract significance, precisely because of the subjectivity that can be applied to the interpretation of individual meteorological data, not to mention the definition that is then given to that specific type of climate whose elements manifest themselves to varying degrees. For example, when referring to a climate in the tropics, it may be significant to determine whether it is humid, or dry, or has seasonal variations in moisture, even if the temperature component is constant.

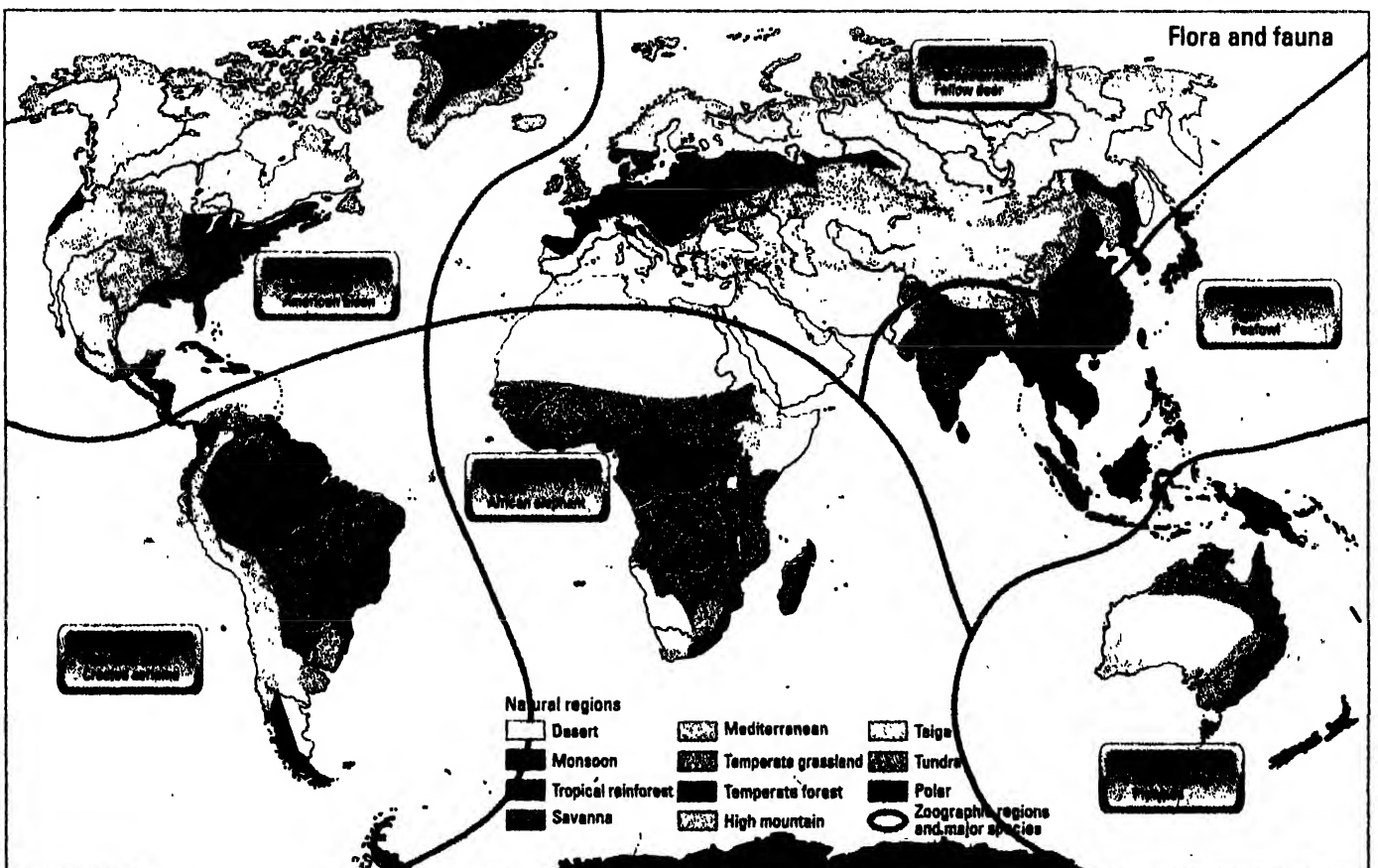
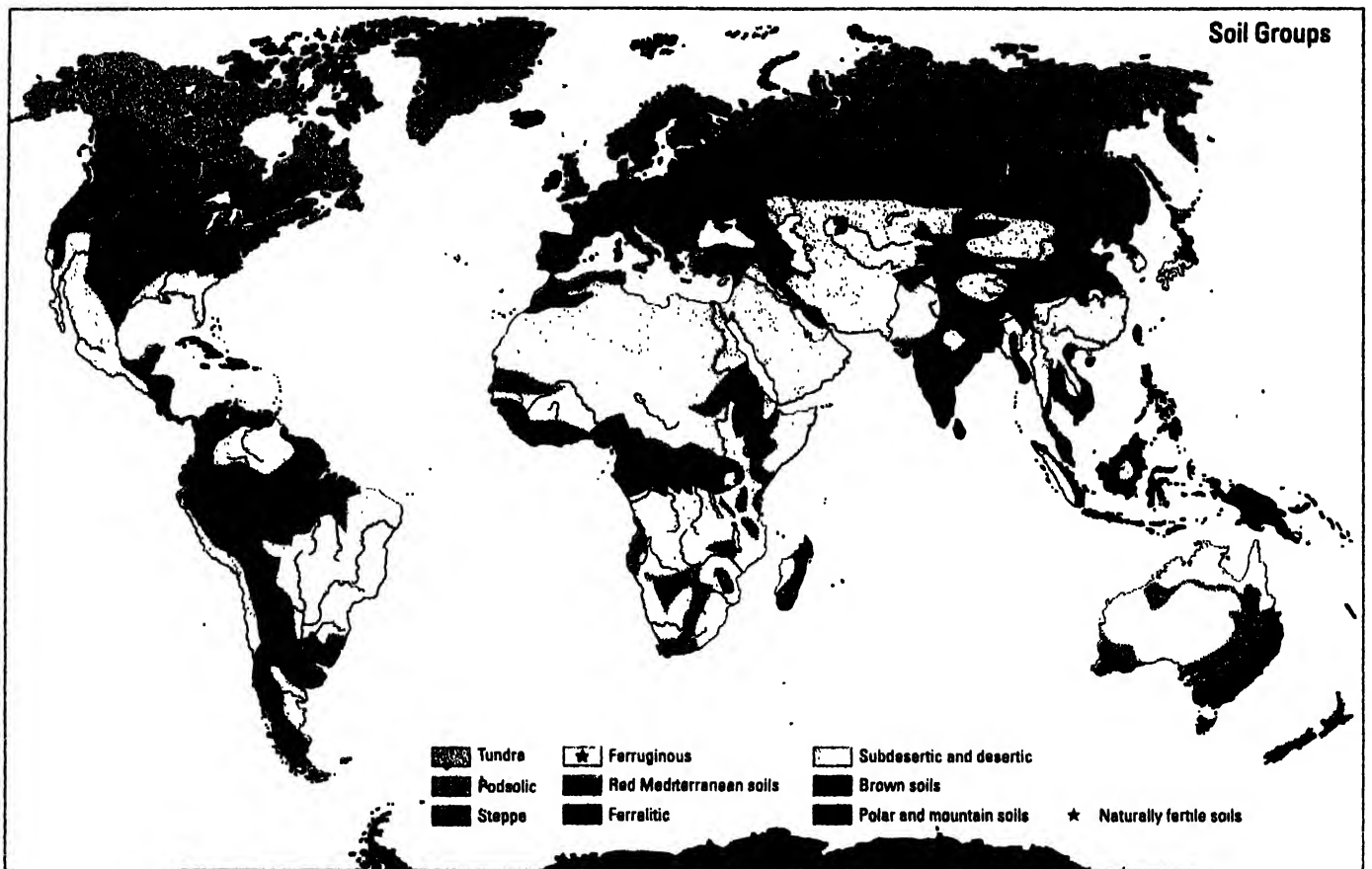
The abstract nature of the idea of climate becomes even more evident when one considers the numerous classifications that have been proposed, some based on an emphasis on certain parameters (temperature or humidity), others on reference to the undoubted effects that climate has on the physical environment and in particular on the biological world, for example on vegetation (see the Biosphere section, below).

Nevertheless, the generalization implicit in any concept of climate can be used to make numerous comparisons and to evaluate in holistic terms the many interrelations between climate and the other physical and biological components of the Earth's surface. It also offers a way to determine the actual influence exerted on the distinctive elements of climate (temperature, pressure, humidity) by geographical and astronomical factors that are normally independent of it, such as latitude, elevation, relief, and geographical position in terms of proximity to or distance from sources of moisture such as oceans. The latter factor gives rise to a distinction between maritime and continental climates: the first generally humid and the second

arid. The climatic classifications that have been proposed, the most influential of which was formulated by the German meteorologist Wladimir Köppen in 1931 still remains useful, not least because it can be correlated with plant environments. It is based on combining the various types of climate into five major groups, distinguished from one another on the basis of differences in temperature and humidity. The first group includes moist tropical climates, characterized by an average temperature above 64°F [18°C] in the coldest month; these include the constantly humid equatorial climate, the monsoon climate with one wet season, and the savanna climate with two short wet seasons and two dry periods. The second includes arid climates (steppe or desert). The third comprises what are called mesothermal climates (moist and warm temperate), characterized by an average temperature of between 64°F [18°C] and 27°F [–3°C] in the coldest month. Members of this group include the tropical mountain climate governed by elevation; the classic Mediterranean climate with a dry summer, winter precipitation, and modest temperature swings (differences between average extreme temperature values); and the constantly moist temperate oceanic climate. The fourth group contains boreal or microthermal climates, with an average temperature below 27°F [–3°C] in the coldest month and above 50°F [10°C] in the hottest month; a dry season (winter in the typical Siberian climate) may or may not be present. Lastly, the fifth group includes the frigid climates typical of the polar regions, with an







average temperature of less than 50°F [10°C] in the warmest month and therefore no trees; these are the tundra and permafrost climates.

**The hydrosphere. The hydrologic cycle.** The close contact that exists among the Earth's three outer coverings—the hydrosphere, atmosphere, and lithosphere—inevitably creates interrelations; such interrelations are demonstrated by the complex series of processes referred to as the hydrologic cycle or water cycle, which also indicates something about the extreme mobility of the phenomena that take place on the Earth's surface.

Normally the atmosphere's moisture is replenished by evaporation from the oceans, which occurs at all latitudes but with greater intensity in the tropics. Condensation of atmospheric moisture in turn produces cloud systems which then discharge onto the Earth's surface in the form of precipitation. Once it arrives on the ground, rainwater can take a number of routes: it infiltrates into the soil and feeds into underground water tables, from which it re-emerges as springs; it is absorbed by plants (leaves and roots) and is given off by them in turn as water vapor; most of it runs off the surface of the soil to feed into watercourses (brooks, streams, rivers, etc.); or it soaks into upper soil layers where it activates processes of pedogenesis (see below), creating more soil in which vegetation can take root.

Water returns to the sea in rivers, thus completing its cycle. The engine powering this cycle consists of both solar radiation, which provides the energy for evaporative processes, and the force of gravity, which facilitates rainfall and both surface and underground water runoff. It is also important to remember that living organisms, especially plants, are also involved in the water cycle.

**Water in the oceans and seas.** The distinction between "ocean" and "sea" is a conventional one: seas are smaller areas of oceans, generally surrounded by land but always communicating with the ocean (the Mediterranean is one example). Otherwise they differ little in essential characteristics, except in certain specific cases; one is the limited mixing between the Atlantic and the Mediterranean due to the presence of a rocky "threshold" across the strait of Gibraltar. In more general terms, however, the word "seas" indicates the entire liquid mass which completely surrounds the world's dry land.

The characteristic which most clearly distinguishes marine water is its salt content or salinity. Ordinarily, each quart of sea water contains about 1.1 oz [35 g/liter] of salts (predominantly sodium chloride and magnesium chloride). This value, which is expressed in parts per thousand, can nevertheless vary with latitude and temperature (since it is influenced by evaporation), and in extreme cases can exceed 40 parts per thousand (Red Sea) or drop below 20 per thousand (Black Sea).

Because of its salt content, sea water has a higher specific gravity than fresh water and therefore freezes at a lower temperature (about 28°F [-2°C]). Although surface ocean temperatures generally reflect those of the atmosphere above, ocean water becomes rapidly colder with increasing depth, reaching 50°F [10°C] at about 1600 ft [500 m], after which the gradient flattens out and the temperature decreases more slowly, attaining values close to 32°F [0°C] in the abyssal depths.

Contact with the atmosphere produces a series of apparently

irregular movements at the surface of the seas, represented by wave motion. This consists of a series of harmonic oscillations of the water particles in the uppermost layers, in which the vertical component predominates. It is only near land that the horizontal component tends to prevail, forming rollers and breakers which possess considerable erosive capability.

Other movements affecting ocean waters are those represented by the tides—a familiar phenomenon which consists of a periodic rise and fall in sea level due to the attraction exerted on the Earth by the Moon—and by ocean currents. The latter, representing true rivers flowing at the surface of the seas, are identified by their temperature, salinity, and occasionally color, all of which generally differentiate them very clearly from the surrounding waters. Currents are therefore identified as "cold" (at a lower temperature than the water around them) or "warm" (higher temperature). Density is another characteristic identifying ocean currents, which can circulate in patterns of truly oceanic scale. One of the best known currents is, of course, the Gulf Stream, which originates in the Gulf of Mexico and then flows across the Atlantic toward the coasts of northwestern Europe, bringing the benefits of its higher temperature. Ocean currents can flow not only at the surface but also at depth; their movements, which are convective in nature, are triggered by differences in temperature and density between deep water and surface water. Complex systems of currents can also occur at various depths in enclosed seas such as the Mediterranean, generated by the particular configuration of the coastline.

**Water on the continents.** Once rainwater has fallen to the ground, it tends to flow into furrows which gradually become broader until they take on the form of true valleys containing rivers and streams. The distinction between these two terms is often purely formal; a stream is generally understood to be a shorter watercourse than a river, with a greater slope and a certain irregularity in its behavior.

In addition to length and slope, the characteristic elements of a watercourse include its hydrographic "basin" (that area in which the surface drainage conveys all precipitation into the main watercourse); its "discharge" (the volume of water carried by the river for each unit of time, usually measured in cubic feet (or cubic meters); and the "regimen," which represents the total variation in flow over the course of a year. The flow rate of a watercourse generally depends on the size of its basin and the quantity of precipitation it receives, while the regimen is also associated with rainfall. When the flow rate reaches higher values, it is said that the watercourse is in flood; lower values characterize the "low water" phase.

If a river's course runs through a depression enclosed on all sides, it may fill it up with water and form a "lake." This term therefore refers to any land depression, no matter how small, that is occupied by water. It can be fed and drained by tributaries and effluents; if these are absent, its presence is governed by the relationship between precipitation and evaporation. Lake basins vary a great deal in origin, but they generally depend on local tectonic and morphological conditions. The water in lakes is also normally saltier than in rivers, but less so than in the sea. Only in the presence of intense evaporation in tropical regions will its salt concentration rise appreciably, leading to the formation of thick salt deposits. Lakes also have a definite climatic influence when their water mass reaches



substantial proportions (as in the case of the Great Lakes of North America).

One particular aspect of continental waters is the enormous masses of ice that cover the polar regions, such as Antarctica and Greenland; these are the remains of even greater and more extensive ice sheets that were present on Earth during the first part of the Quaternary period (Pleistocene epoch). In other regions, especially on higher ground above a certain elevation (called the snow line, an elevation which tends to decrease from equatorial regions, where it lies at 16,000–20,000 ft [5000–6000 m], toward the poles), the accumulation of snow that does not melt before the next winter leads to the formation of huge quantities of ice, which is produced as the snow is gradually compressed and all the air within it is expelled. Under the action of gravity, that ice will then tend to slip downward. The result is the formation the typical tongues of ice called glaciers, which have immense power to erode and reshape landscapes.

Not all of the Earth's dry land is covered with a network of watercourses; in places where precipitation is extremely sparse or entirely absent, surface drainage also disappears. These regions usually correspond to desert areas. Regions in which surface drainage never reaches the sea, but rather flows into enclosed basins are termed "endorheic," while all the other parts of the Earth in which drainage flows ultimately into the sea are considered to be "exorheic."

**The shaping of the Earth's surface. *Morphogenic agents and processes.*** No sooner than the Earth's relief is created as a result of deformations to the crust produced by internal (endogenous) forces (predominantly tectonic, but also seismic and volcanic), it is immediately attacked by other forces, external to the Earth's surface, represented by all those phenomena that occur within the atmosphere and hydrosphere: wind, precipitation, running water, glaciers, wave motion, and the like. Added to these is the action of living beings and of humans in particular, which can produce considerable morphological changes to the environment.

The effect of these external or "exogenous" forces is to produce actual erosion of the rocks that outcrop at the surface. These are thus transported downward and later deposited in valley bottoms, in lake basins, and especially in the sea. Erosion, transportation, and sedimentation are thus the fundamental exogenous effects whose mechanisms, at times highly complex, shape the world's landscapes and give them the morphological characteristics which often unmistakably identify them.

One morphological agent of considerable importance is the force of gravity, which causes eroded materials to travel downward along valley slopes (thus causing the accumulation of occasionally substantial layers of detritus) and to be transported by running water. Gravity also controls the many types of crumbling movements which affect regions with low geological stability.

Atmospheric agents—wind, temperature changes, and precipitation—are also of major importance. The wind acts by lifting and transporting (or deflating) finer material from the ground and hurling it against rocks, which are rubbed away (corrasion) and thereby eroded. Frequent changes in air temperature produce repeated expansion and contraction of rocky

materials, which are thereby weakened and exposed to further erosion. One very important agent in this context is ice, which can ultimately fracture even the hardest and strongest rocks. Lastly, rainwater, generally carrying dissolved carbon dioxide, causes chemical dissolution (karstification) of certain rocks such as limestone and gypsum, especially if they are already fissured; this produces underground voids (caves, with their characteristic dripstone deposits consisting of stalactites and stalagmites), and depressions of various sizes on the surface (sinkholes). Rainwater can also result in perceptible mechanical erosion when it strikes soils and rocks that have little strength (sands and clays), leading to the development of deep incisions (gullies) and other striking morphological effects.

Glaciers and wave action have particularly impressive erosive effects, and are responsible for much of the present-day appearance of landscapes both inland and on the coasts. As glaciers move downward, they produce vigorous erosion of the valley bottoms in which they slide while the ice itself is in turn consumed by attrition and by the action of higher surface temperatures (ablation). Material eroded by the glacier is ultimately dragged to its leading edge and sides, forming characteristic accumulations called moraines. The valleys excavated by glaciers, in which erosion also occurs laterally, take on a typically concave shape with a flat, wide U-shaped bottom, unlike the V-shaped valleys cut by running water. The erosion produced by wave action on sea coasts, however, is predominantly mechanical (abrasion), and can cause coastlines to recede very rapidly. When vertical walls (cliffs) are present along high, rocky coasts, the sea will often dig out niches and caves, which in the past were used as shelters and dwellings by primitive humans. The action of the sea along coastlines does not just involve erosion; it also tends to accumulate material (generally sand) discharged by rivers and transported by coastal currents. The result is the building up of coastal bars and barrier islands which enclose large areas of water within them (lagoons). The action of running water (rivers and streams) is also predominantly mechanical. Once it has been eroded, material is transported downward. The river then gradually deposits first the coarser and heavier material, then the finer and lighter components (gravel and sand); what arrives at the mouth of the river is generally the finest materials (mud and clay), which are deposited very slowly. During floods, these materials may also include pebbles and sand, which are discharged into the sea and then deposited on the continental shelf. River mouths can also take on different forms depending on conditions, which may impede or promote the deposition of alluvial material ("alluvium" is the term generally used to describe materials transported by rivers); if deposition is impeded, the river forms an estuary (a wide, deep mouth that is often tidal for some distance inland); if conditions favor it, the result is a delta, a fan-shaped mass of deposits radiating from the river mouth into the sea, with an extremely variable shape through which numerous channels often flow.

One last typical aspect of the morphogenic action of watercourses is represented by terraces, steps cut by a river into its own sediments after it resumes erosive activity in the lower part of its course. In addition, when a tributary enters from the side of the valley containing the principal watercourse, it deposits all the material it was transporting, forming a charac-

teristic conical accumulation (the detritus cone or conoid), which further articulates the morphological landscape.

**The origin and distribution of soils.** The uppermost part of the Earth is finely broken down by the action of atmospheric agents, thus allowing running water to soak in. When this water evaporates, it not only precipitates salts but also causes remixing of previously disintegrated material, in which animals and plants can now reside. As this process (called pedogenesis, or soil formation) proceeds, it leads to the formation of a surface layer of humus, a material made mostly of decomposed organic matter mixed with chemical and mineral substances particularly suited for absorption by vegetation. The chemical and mineralogical composition of a soil generally depends on the nature of the underlying rock (parent rock) from whose breakdown it originated. Because of their particular structure, however, soils have a very delicate equilibrium and can easily be eroded or totally removed, with highly negative effects on the plant cover and on other organisms that are linked to it; this is particularly devastating in the case of forests.

The distribution of soils around the Earth depends not only on lithological conditions but also to a large extent on climatic conditions and the plant environment. The most familiar soil types include podzols, or gray soils, typical of boreal regions with conifer forests; brown soils that support broadleaf forests in temperate regions; and the chernozems, or black soils typical of the European and Asian steppes, highly suitable for grain cultivation. The soils typical of Mediterranean regions, however, are called "terra rossa" (red Earth); these predominantly clay soils form from the dissolution of limestones. Soils frequently found in tropical regions include laterites, reddish clay soils that form in hot, humid environments with a great deal of evaporation.

**The biosphere. The distribution of organisms.** On the Earth's surface, and partly interpenetrating the hydrosphere and atmosphere, is another covering around the Earth: this is the biosphere, or the assemblage of all living organisms (plant, animal, and human), whose distribution depends on many factors—lithological, morphological, climatic, and ultimately biological. Moreover, it has changed profoundly over time, especially after the appearance of humans, who have attempted to exterminate or reduce those species which they did not believe useful and promote the distribution of others by means of typical activities such as agriculture and stock raising. Gradually this merged into a phase of genuine aggression against natural resources, the risks of which were described many years ago by the anthropologist Camille Arambourg:

*In a very short time, modern humans have profoundly altered the biological equilibrium of the planet, and it is possible that we are beginning to see the consequences of this fact. They have destroyed most of the large animal species and changed the distribution of the rest, and done the same for plants; they have multiplied at a dizzying pace, to an extent that now worries sociologists. What is more, now that they have gradually exhausted the natural resources that are essential for their survival, their entire material and social life is more and more closely linked to the possession or conquest of resources that are likely to run out; little by little, they are*

*replacing their natural, original biotope with an artificial biotope to which they are becoming progressively enslaved.*

The distribution of animals over the Earth's surface, based on the particular characteristics of each individual species, can be used to identify a certain number of zoogeographic regions, each with fairly homogeneous characteristics. North America as far as central Mexico constitutes the Nearctic region, while Central and South America and the Caribbean area form the Neotropical region. Australia and Oceania represent the Australian region, while the Old World is divided into three principal regions: the Palearctic with Europe, northern Africa, and north-central Asia, the Ethiopic region comprising central and eastern Africa and Arabia; and lastly the Oriental region with south and southeast Asia.

Because of the particular nature of plants, the distribution of vegetation is based on predominantly climatic and edaphic (soil-related) criteria. The term "plant community" is used to describe a vegetational unit with a specific composition, that has developed certain characteristics under uniform environmental conditions; a vegetation "formation," on the other hand, refers to an assemblage of related plant communities understood in the geographic sense (rainforest, savanna, meadow, and so on; see below).

A better understanding of the problems and considerations relating to the distribution of organisms on Earth requires a clear awareness of the significance of certain concepts, especially those of "environment" and "ecosystem." The term "environment" can mean the totality of all terrestrial physical conditions and organic phenomena capable of influencing living organisms. An "ecosystem," on the other hand, is a complex of coexisting organisms and physical phenomena in terms of the interdependence among them, characterized by interactions consisting of interchanges of matter and energy.

**Bioclimatic landscapes.** The classification of climates outlined above will provide a better understanding of the geographical distribution of the principal plant formations which, together with morphological conditions, help better delineate certain aspects of the natural landscape.

The hot and hot-humid climates of the tropical region are still characterized by large areas of evergreen equatorial forest, constantly supplied with precipitation, rich in valuable species, and with a considerable variety of spice plants. As one moves away from the equator and as precipitation patterns change with the Sun's position in the sky, the forest thins out and the predominant formation becomes the savanna, realm of the grasses, with few trees. At these latitudes, a lush forest develops only in monsoon environments, and even there experiences a hiatus in growth during the dry season. As precipitation becomes sparser toward the tropics, the savanna gives way to the steppe, with abundant xerophytic (dry-adapted) and thorny species. Beyond the band of tropical deserts (where the presence of isolated water sources nevertheless allows the existence of typical oases), the steppes reappear, this time as formations that are still dry but in a Mediterranean context (with its typical scrub vegetation of evergreen species such as olive, cypress, etc.).

The temperate zones are generally the home of forest formations, consisting of broadleaf trees or conifers depending

on temperature conditions. Conifers develop predominantly in areas at higher elevations on mountains, or at higher latitudes; the classic Siberian "taiga" is a typical example. In drier interior areas with a continental climate, however, the tendency is for steppes or meadows to develop, merging in some cases into genuine deserts (as in central Asia). Last is the tundra, with its mosses and lichens, that flowers during the brief Arctic summer.

## THE HUMAN POPULATION

*Proconsul* and *Kenyapithecus*, two anthropoid apes who lived in Africa between 23 and 14 million years ago and were characterized respectively by the absence of a tail and an upright posture, are no doubt among the oldest known animal species in some way similar to human primates. Probably descended from them is *Australopithecus africanus*, a hominid with a cranial capacity of about 30 cubic inches [500 cm<sup>3</sup>] (a third of our own braincase), whose fossil remains, dating back two to six million years or so, were discovered in southern and eastern Africa. Its slow evolution successively led to *Homo habilis*, *Homo erectus*, and *Homo sapiens*, and culminated about 40,000 years ago in the appearance in the Near East of *Homo sapiens sapiens*, the human species to which we belong.

**Historical basins and great stages of the world's population.** According to many scholars, therefore, the cradle of humanity was probably eastern Africa. From the area of present-day Tanzania, Kenya, and Ethiopia, where the oldest human fossils have been discovered, the earliest hominids are believed to have spread first to the temperate zones of Eurasia and then, in succession, to the other regions of Europe and Africa, the Americas and Oceania.

The spread of *Homo erectus* and the amazing evolutionary dynamism of the genus *Homo* are described here by Yves Coppens:

*The human species was now off to conquer the planet.*

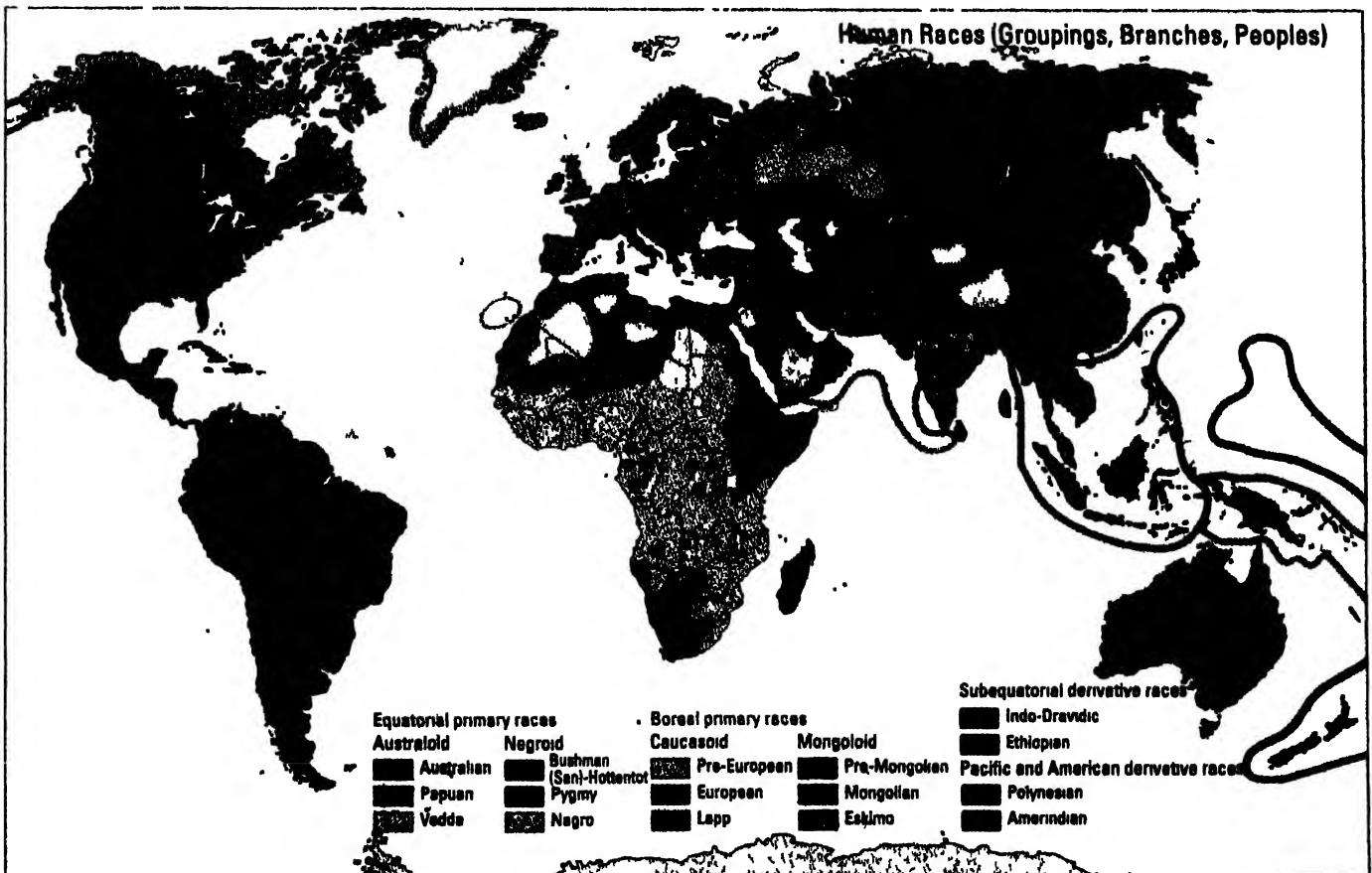
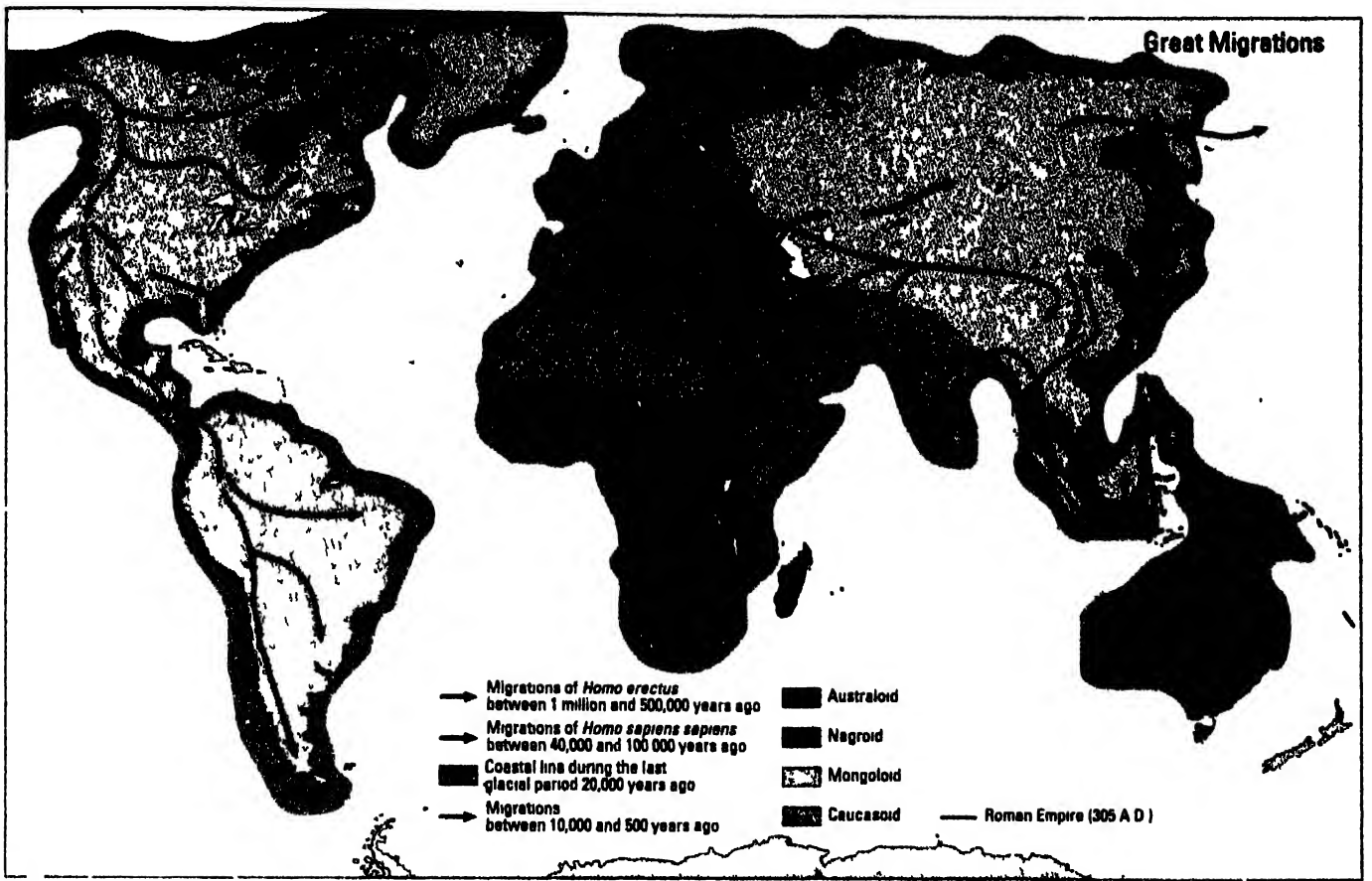
*It was agreed to call this humanoid Homo erectus. Indeed, Homo habilis had evolved and a taller and heavier humanoid with a low and larger braincase appeared on the scene, its bones thickened and developed superstructures (a sagittal ridge, a supraorbital and an occipital foramen), and it was logical to give it another name. However, as was to be expected, a "species" that covered most of three continents obviously exhibits a much wider range of variations. Homo erectus found in China ... is not at all like Homo erectus unearthed in Spain or France ..., and the hominid of Tanzania is in no way interchangeable with that of Morocco.... Added to this diversity is another and unexpected one: there is no direct transition from Homo habilis to Homo erectus, like the passage of Australopithecus to Australopithecus boisei, but an evolution that has gone through numerous intermediate stages whose characteristics evolved at a different pace.... It would actually seem that the genus Homo is an example of continuous evolution. Because the transformation was a gradual one ... and since the intrinsic and essential characteristic of the human species is the development of culture, it is logical to think that the latter was involved in its biological evolution.*

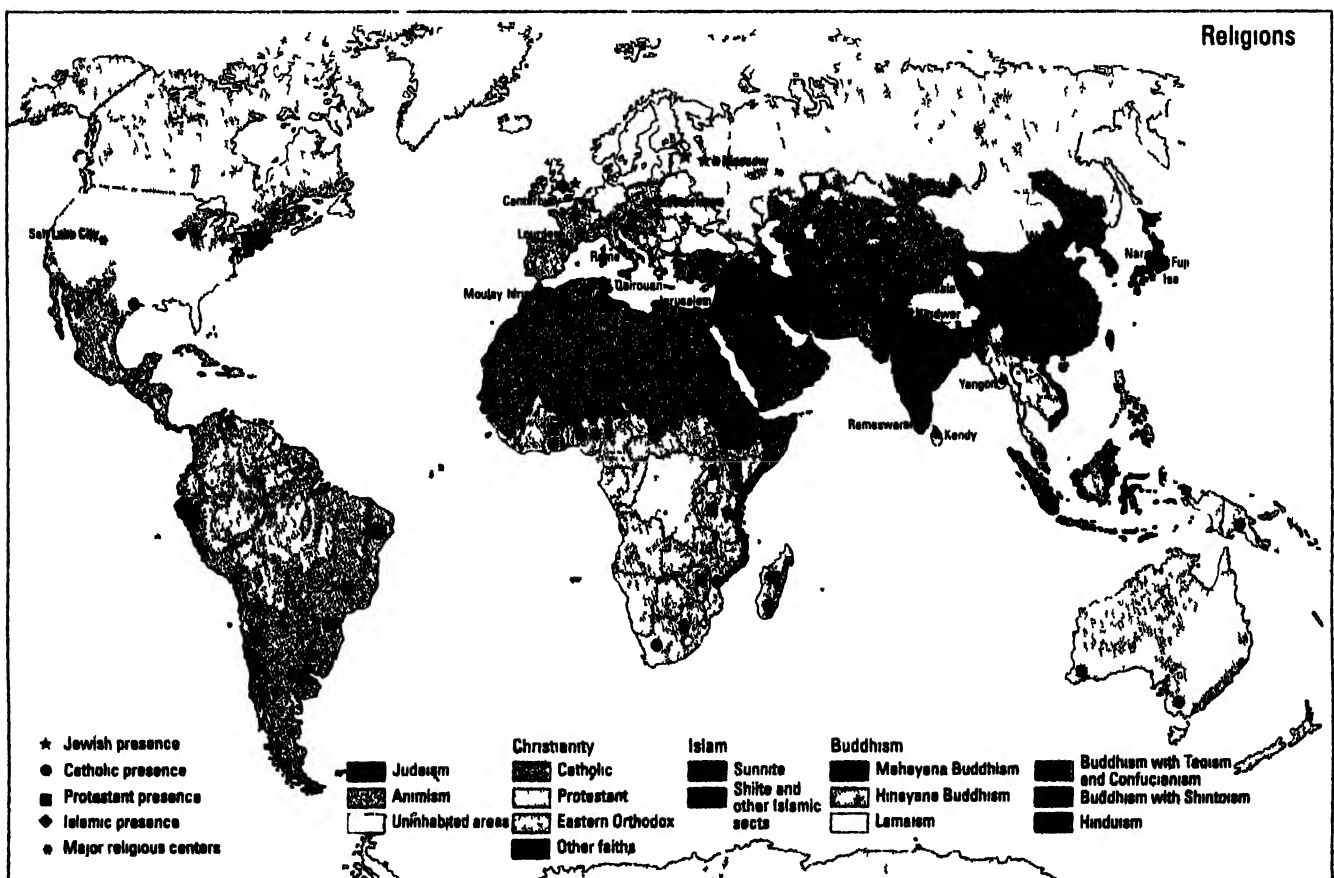
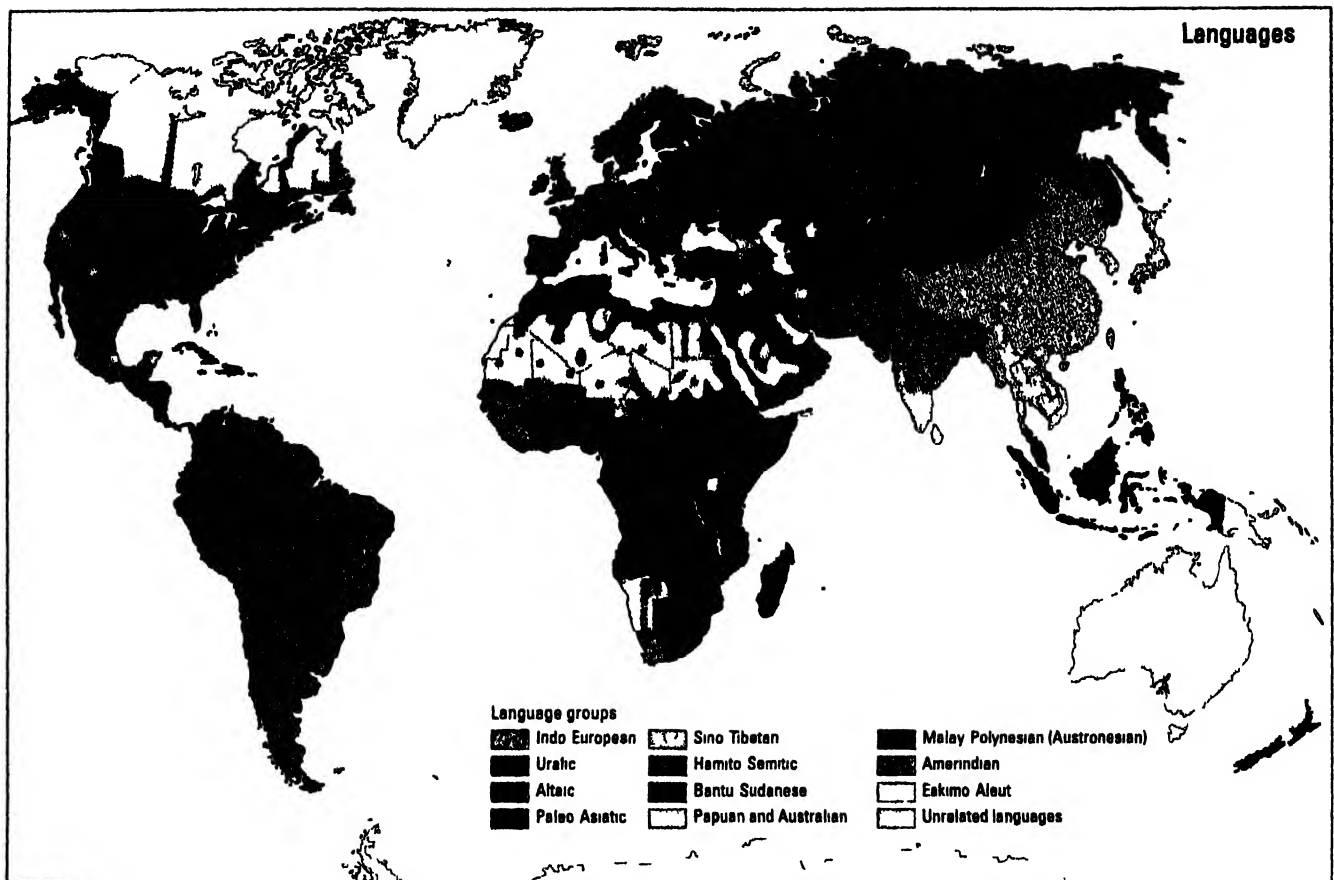
For hundreds of thousands of years our species survived by gathering wild tubers, roots, and fruits, as well as by hunting wild animals with extremely rudimentary weapons. During this first long phase of its existence, the human population of the Earth multiplied slowly, probably totaling no more than 5 million 10,000 years ago. The first major demographic increase occurred with the introduction of agriculture, the oldest evidence of which—in Mesopotamia, India, and southern China—dates back 8000–10,000 years. The agricultural revolution increased the availability of food and facilitated the establishment of village communities, which in turn promoted extensive demographic growth that led to a world population some 4000 years ago of at least 40–50 million people. A further population increase came with the emergence of cities in the great alluvial lowlands of Mesopotamia and Egypt, and later of India and China.

Around the beginning of the Christian era the planet's population of 250 million was basically concentrated around three major geopolitical nuclei: the regions occupied by the Roman, Indian, and Chinese empires. It took another 1600 years for the human population to double to half a billion people. After the end of the 17th century this rate accelerated, and by 1950 the Earth's population had multiplied fivefold, reaching almost 2.5 billion, subsequently doubling again in less than forty years.

**Physical and cultural features. Race.** The various groups of humanity are differentiated by their racial and cultural elements. A human race is understood to be a group of people who have inherited certain specific somatic characteristics in common. Culture, on the other hand, is understood to be the spiritual attributes (like language and religion) and material characteristics (such as predominant occupation, nutrition, type of housing) of a people. It should be pointed out directly that the areas of diffusion of the somatic characteristics do not always coincide with that of the cultural features: it is thus entirely possible that individuals of the same race may speak different languages, or conversely, that groups speaking the same language may belong to different races. This leads to the introduction of the concept of an "ethnic group," the members of which exhibit common cultural characteristics but do not necessarily belong to the same race. In fact, the very concept of "race" has been called into question, especially following the distorted way it has been used during certain periods of history. As it is used here, race refers to elements of somatic differentiation which have nothing to do with inappropriate judgments of cultural worth; hence, race and not racism.

Races are distinguished on the basis of such criteria as, for example, cephalic index (the ratio between the length and the breadth of the cranium), pigmentation (the amount of melanin in the skin, which determines an individual's skin color), facial profile, color and shape of the eyes, hair texture, and so on. Consequently, we distinguish among individuals who are dolicocephalic (having a long head), brachycephalic (having a short, wide head), or mesocephalic (with a cranial index of intermediate size); among racial populations who are black, yellow, or white (that is to say, whose skin has an abundance, scarcity, or absence of melanin); among people who are prognathous or orthognathous (depending on whether their jaws protrude or not), and so on. On the basis of these and other dif-







ferences, we can distinguish among roughly 50 races, all traceable to four primary racial divisions: Caucasoid—with more or less light skin, an orthognathous profile, medium height, thin hair, etc.—originally disseminated throughout Europe, Mediterranean Africa, southwest Asia, and India, and subsequently, during the colonial period, the Americas, Australia, and New Zealand; Mongoloid—with a yellowish complexion, relatively short stature, smooth dark hair, and dark slanted eyes—distributed throughout eastern Asia, Indochina, and Indonesia; Negroid—with dark skin, prognathous profile, snub nose, black curly hair, and dark eyes—a people that originated in sub-Saharan Africa and were forcibly transferred to the Americas during the “slave trade”; and Australoid—with brown skin, prognathous profile, prominent forehead, and dark wavy hair, who today have been reduced to small numbers in Australia, New Guinea, Melanesia, and the Deccan. There are also “derivative races,” the result of racial mixing or of reproductive isolation in ancient times (as is the case of the Ethiopians, Polynesians, Amerindians, and many others). Today, interbreeding between individuals of diverse races is an increasingly common reality which in some regions of the world contributes to the lessening of racial characteristics that were at one time clearly differentiated.

**Language.** Among the manifestations of spiritual culture, language occupies a role of particular importance, constituting a phonemic, grammatical, and lexical system which enables members of the same community to communicate among themselves and divides them from others as a unitary ethnic group. Language, moreover, is closely linked to the literature it engenders and, as such, it further cements in those who speak it the awareness of being part of a unit distinct from other groups. Of course, this does not exclude the fact that inhabitants of the same country may sometimes speak different languages, as in the case of Belgium, for example, where the official languages are French (Walloon dialect) and Dutch (Flemish dialect), or Switzerland, where German, French, and Italian are spoken. Furthermore, among ethnic groups speaking the same language, dialectical forms may also be used within circumscribed geographical areas which satisfy daily popular (but usually not literary or technical) aspects of local needs for expression.

The approximately 3000 languages spoken in the world today can be subsumed under several basic linguistic branches (such as the Italic branch, which includes the Romance languages). These in turn, are part of larger language families, among which the major ones are the Indo-European family (including the Italic, Germanic, Slavic, Indo-Iranian, and other branches); the Ural-Altaic family (comprising the Finno-Ugric languages and the Altaic languages of the Turkic and Mongol peoples); the Sino-Tibetan family (including Chinese and several of the Indochinese languages); the Hamito-Semitic or Afro-Asiatic family (consisting of Hebrew, Arabic and other languages of northern Africa); and the Niger-Congo, Nilo-Saharan, and Khoisan families (comprising the tongues spoken in sub-Saharan Africa). Other geographically or numerically less widespread language groups are the Malayo-Polynesian, Australian, Papuan, Amerindian, etc. Migrations as well as the political and economic power of many nations have made some languages more successful than others, replacing the original ones in many regions. We need only think of the spread of English, not to mention that of French, Spanish, and Portuguese throughout colonized areas during previous centuries; at the time of slavery, these languages even gave birth to others called creoles, born of their simplification.

**Religion.** Despite today's pronounced secularization process observable throughout the world, religion remains a fundamental aspect of the spiritual culture of peoples, with precepts always related to ethical and social behavior as well as to esthetic and hygienic standards. For purposes of systematic classification, the world's religions are usually divided into two major groups: those with a rigorously ethnic perspective that reinforces the cultural homogeneity of a specific people or country, like Hinduism in India or Shintoism in Japan, and those with a universal vocation seeking to proselytize ever larger areas, as do Christianity and Islam. The territorial distribution of the various religions has changed in the course of history through conquests and conversions, with integralism often resulting in mounting intolerance leading to cruel wars.

Most of humanity professes a few great religious faiths, the most widespread being Christianity, with its three major confessions: Roman Catholic, Protestant (including among its many



denominations the Lutheran, Anglican, and Baptist churches), and Eastern Orthodox. Islam also has a large number of faithful followers, divided between the Sunni and Shiite sects, while geographically more circumscribed (and therefore, as has been said, more ethnically based) are Hinduism, Buddhism, Confucianism, and Shintoism. Judaism is the least of the world's major religions in terms of the number of its adherents, who are fairly widely dispersed throughout the world.

**The elements of material culture.** Among the more revealing aspects of material culture are the prevalent types of occupation, nutrition, housing, and clothing. These elements depend on the lifestyles of the various ethnic groups involved and are greatly influenced by such physical factors as climate.

**Ethnolinguistic minorities and sources of conflict.** The very elements which distinguish the racial aspects and the spiritual and material cultures in a given geographic area reflect the presence of ethnic minorities which exhibit one or more characteristics that are at variance with those of the majority group, as in the case of citizens who belong to a nationality different from that of the dominant group in a given country or people who speak a language which differs from the official or prevailing language, or also individuals whose religious beliefs diverge from the common religion, etc. Far too often, ethnic majorities and minorities have found it difficult, and at times intolerable, to live together in the same country, with separatist movements instigating violent conflicts. Belgium, Northern Ireland, Corsica, and all of the former Soviet area, in general, not to mention the former Yugoslavia, provide some European examples of regions where sharp internal tensions often linked to claims of autonomy have long been known and have recently flared up, erupting dramatically in clashes and occasionally resulting in national independence.

**Human distribution on Earth.** By 1990 the world's population totaled over 5.2 billion people, after registering an average annual increase of 1.7%, a birth rate of 27 per 1,000 population, and a mortality rate of 11 per 1,000 population during the previous decade. Humankind is not uniformly distributed over the planet, however; in fact, vast uninhabited areas cover about a fifth of the Earth (such as the Arctic and Antarctic regions, deserts, highest mountain peaks, and rainforests), where no permanent human settlements exist because of the harsh climate and environmental conditions.

Settlement patterns depend on various factors. Some are due to natural elements (climate, water resources, vegetation, soil fertility, etc.), others are biological in nature (endemic diseases, acclimatization, fertility rates, etc.), and still others, finally, are cultural (lifestyle, economic and social organization, age of the settlement, etc.).

Our planet offers limited areas of attraction for population settlements and these are separated from each other by vast stretches of ocean and land devoid of any value for human settlement. Humanity therefore did not spread from a central nucleus like an oil spill, but rather concentrated in some favored regions. The Northern Hemisphere, in particular, encompasses two thirds of the land above sea level and attracted 90% of the human species. In fact, Europe, the United States, Japan, China, and India—namely, some of the world's most populated regions—lie in the temperate belt of the middle lati-

tudes and in the subtropical zone of the Northern Hemisphere.

Some regions of the Earth with large concentrations of people may not have the resources to meet the needs of the population and are therefore deemed to be "overpopulated"; others, however, are considered to be "underpopulated" because they do not have enough people to exploit their resources adequately. What is more, the economic and social organization in some parts of the world are unable to satisfy even the minimal food requirements of the population, resulting in widespread famine, a tragic reality which today still strikes hundreds of millions of people.

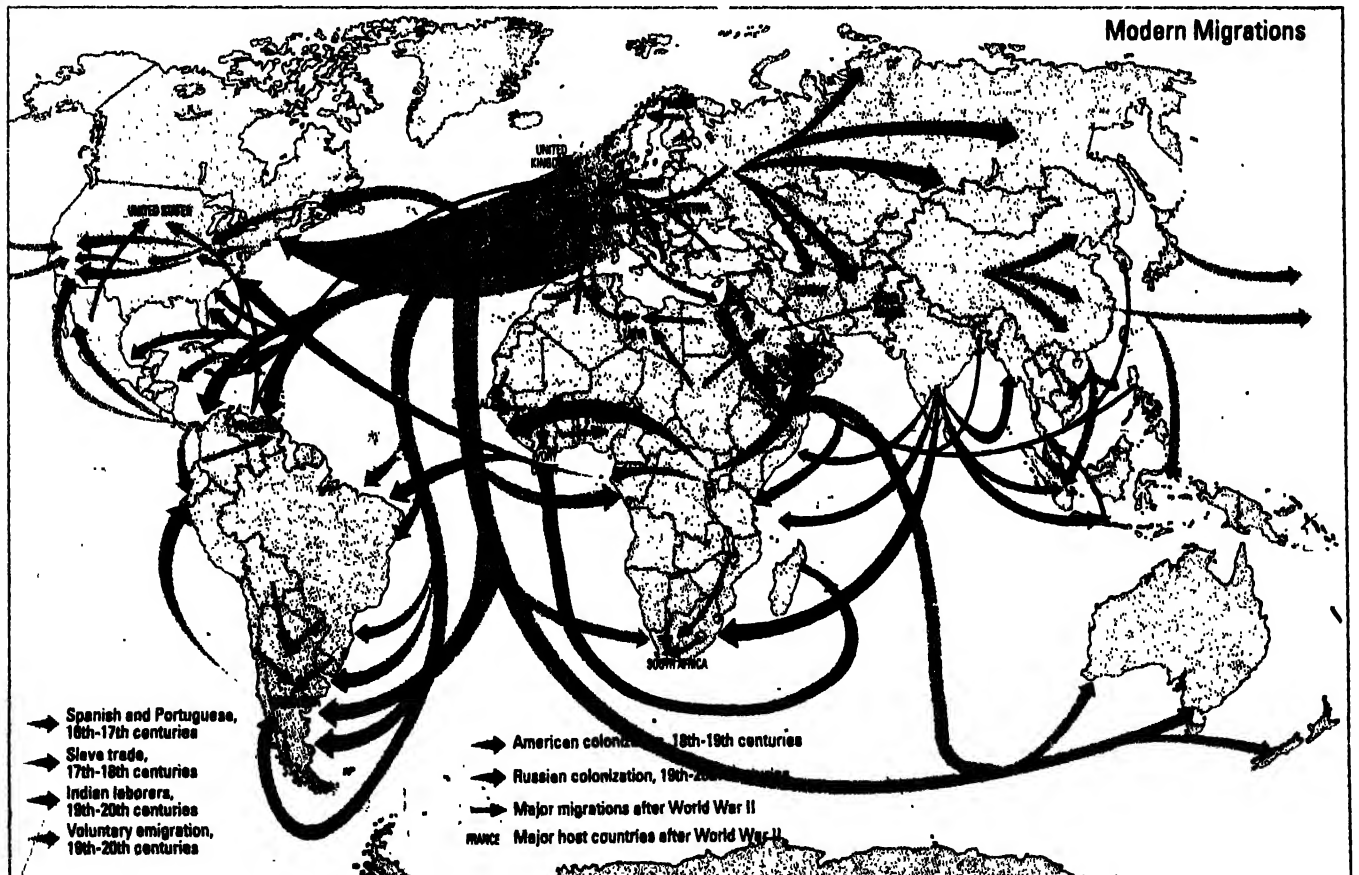
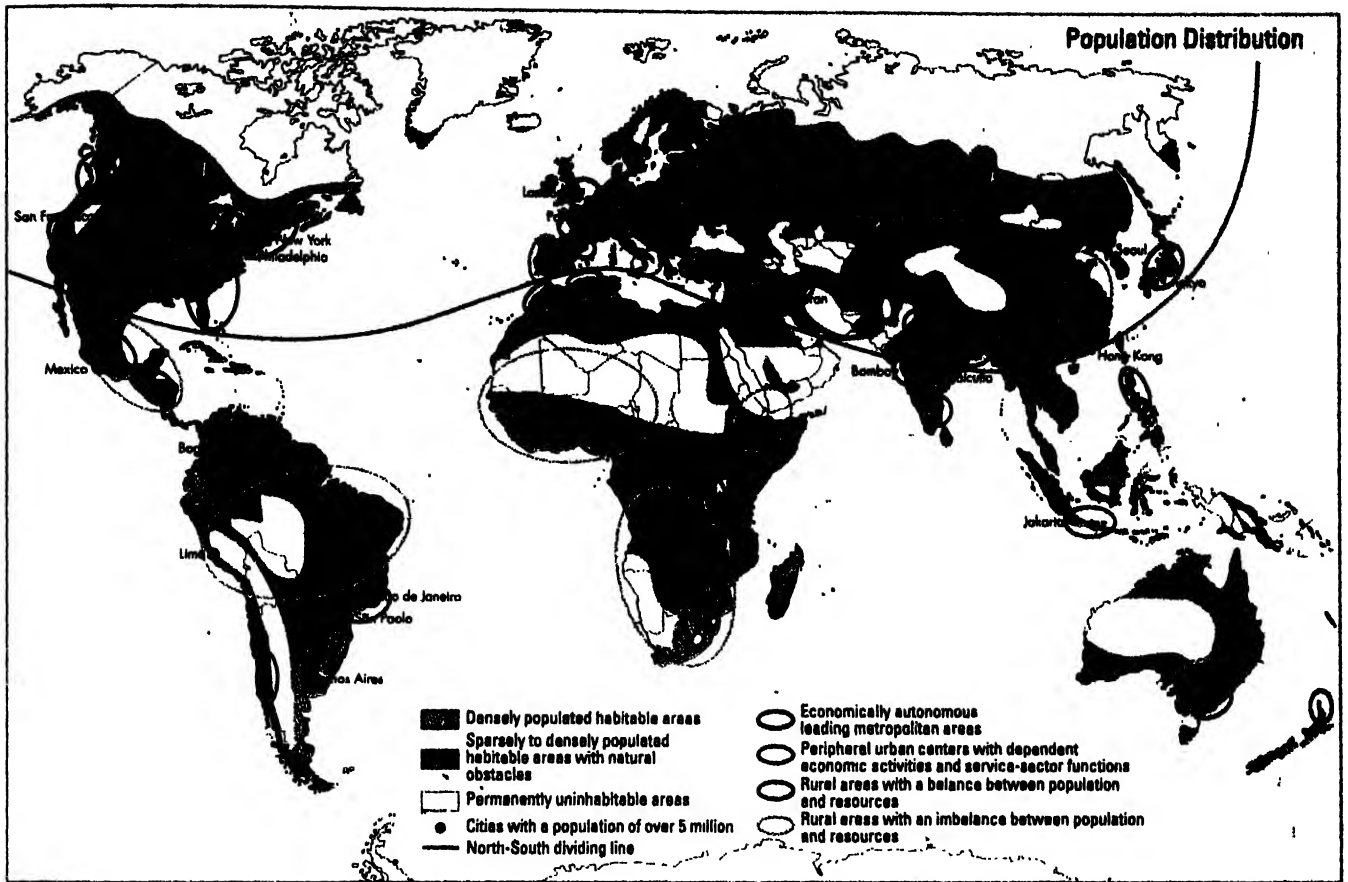
**Population density.** Considering that the Earth's landmasses cover about 57.5 million  $\text{mi}^2$  [149 million  $\text{km}^2$ ], the mean density of the world population is 90 people per  $\text{mi}^2$  [35 per  $\text{km}^2$ ], the most densely populated areas being Asia and Europe (with respective densities of 184 and 176 per  $\text{mi}^2$  [71 and 68 per  $\text{km}^2$ ]), followed by Africa (52 per  $\text{mi}^2$  [20 per  $\text{km}^2$ ]), the Americas (44 per  $\text{mi}^2$  [17 per  $\text{km}^2$ ]), and Oceania (7.7 per  $\text{mi}^2$  [3 per  $\text{km}^2$ ]).

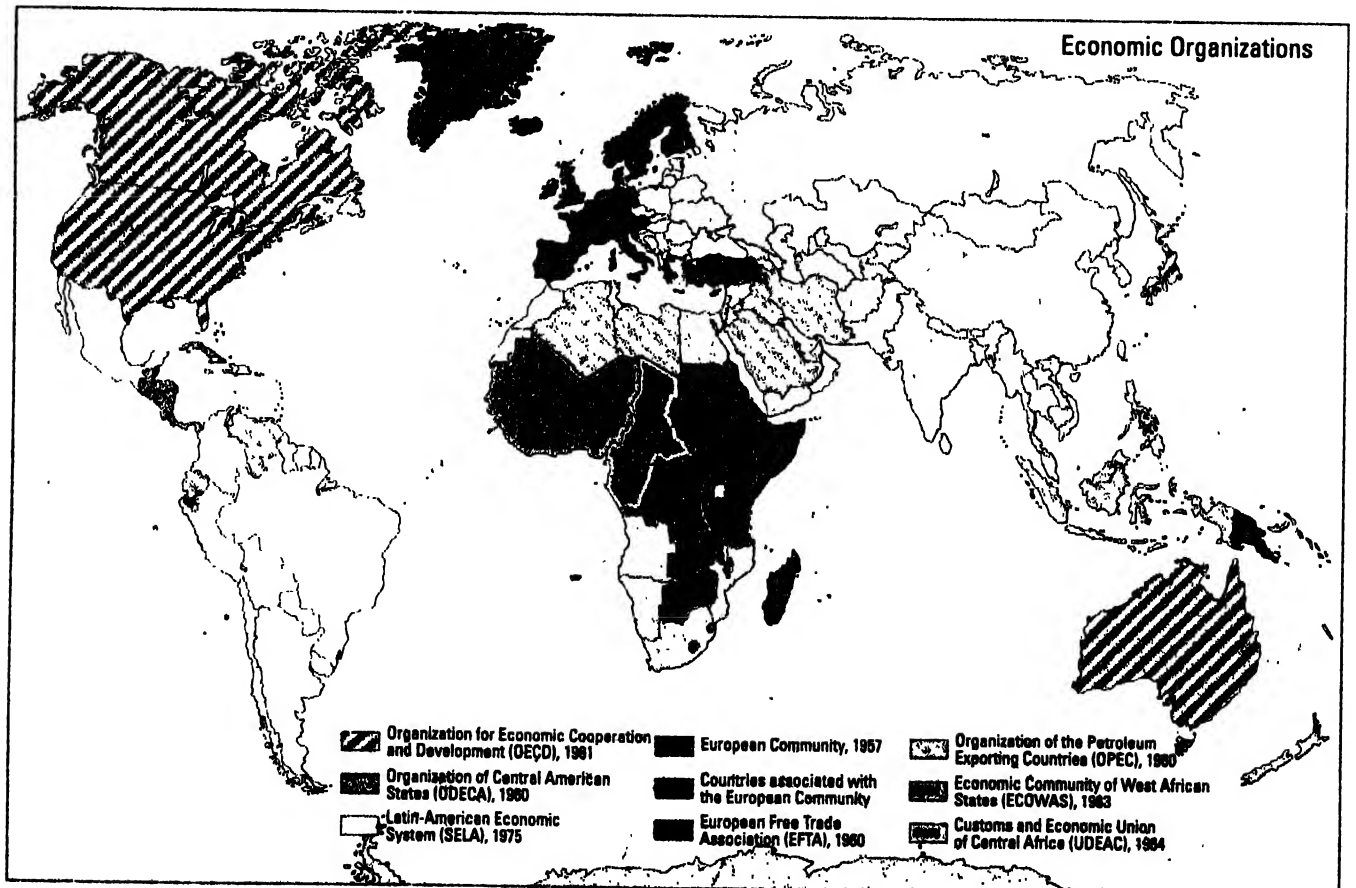
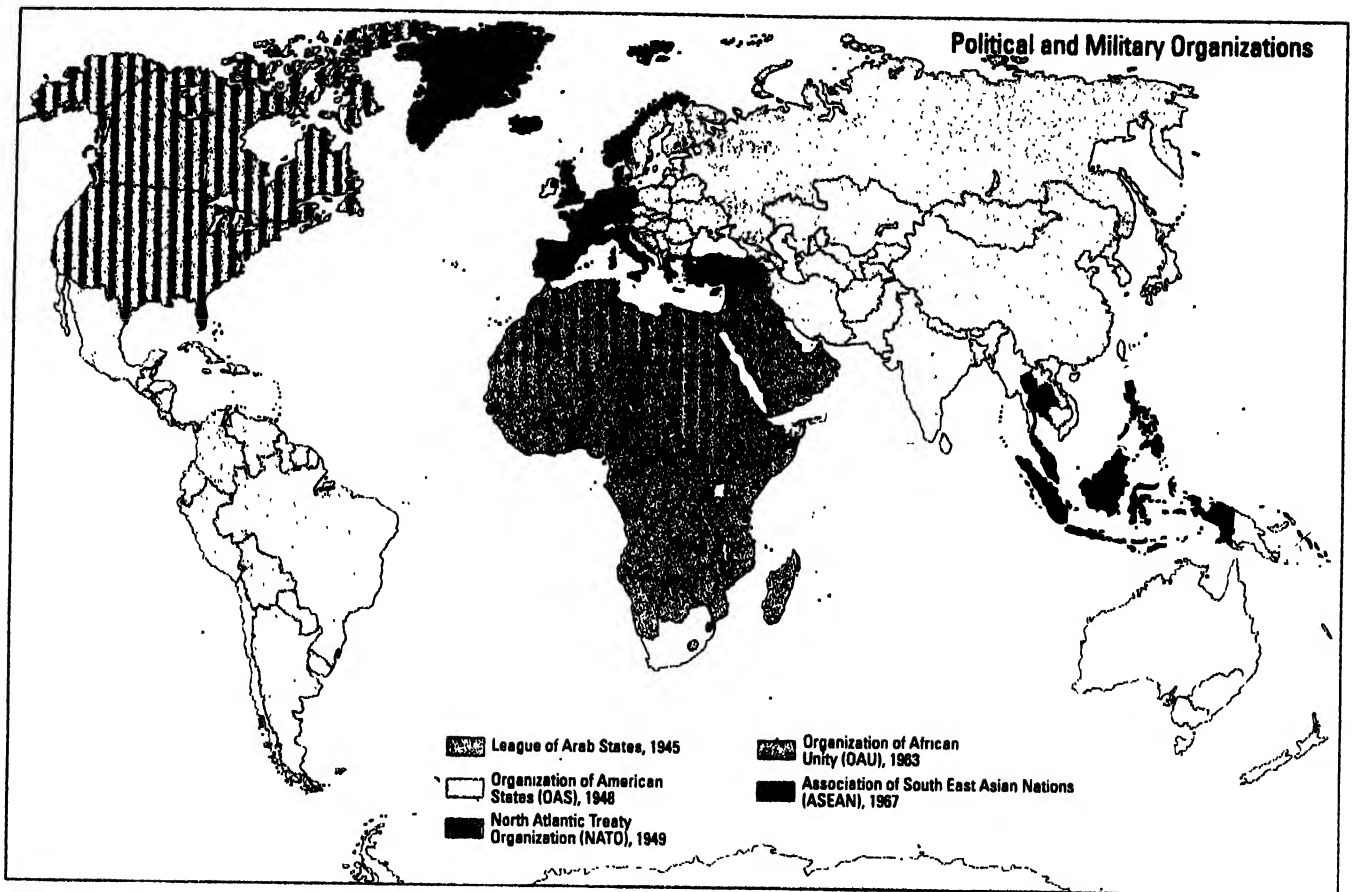
Within each continent, however, population densities may vary widely (for example, the Asian country of Bangladesh had a density of 2255 per  $\text{mi}^2$  [870 per  $\text{km}^2$ ]) in 1993. Within the same country there may also be a wide discrepancy in population distribution, as in the case of Egypt, where the overall density is 124 per  $\text{mi}^2$  [48 per  $\text{km}^2$ ], but where an overwhelming majority of the people are concentrated along the banks of the Nile, with a density of 2331 per  $\text{mi}^2$  [900 per  $\text{km}^2$ ].

The regions of the world generally regarded as high-density areas are those with more than about 250 people per  $\text{mi}^2$  [100 per  $\text{km}^2$ ], while densely populated areas are considered to have 150–250 per  $\text{mi}^2$  [50–100 per  $\text{km}^2$ ], and moderate-density areas from 25–150 people per  $\text{mi}^2$  [10–50 per  $\text{km}^2$ ]. Areas with less than 25 people per  $\text{mi}^2$  [10 per  $\text{km}^2$ ] are regarded as having a low density. Usually, the population density increases as one proceeds from the arid zones to those with at least one rainy season, from the cold to the temperate and tropical areas, from the great forests to those areas with more open vegetation, and from the inland to the coastal regions.

In addition to being influenced by physical environment, population density is also affected by cultural, economic, and social factors. From the very low population density of areas inhabited by peoples who live by hunting and gathering we proceed to the high density of those subject to intensive and irrigated cultivation, and finally to the very high density of settlements which derive their livelihood from an industrial economy. Even in the latter case, however, the data must be interpreted with some caution because, although numerically comparable, there is a profound difference between the high density of a Hindu farming region and that of an English industrial area.

**Urban growth.** Today's phenomenon of increasing population and its concentration in certain areas is closely linked to urban growth, which especially in the last decades has experienced exceptional development as a result of "urbanization." In many countries of the world, cities have been expanding inordinately, sometimes forced to coalesce with others to form large conurbations. On occasion, these have come to occupy broad areas called "urban regions" or "city regions" (as in the case of the Ruhr valley in Germany). The megalopolis, a huge





urbanized region in which many cities and suburbs are merged with major industrial facilities, has acquired considerable economic importance; the first and best known example is the North Atlantic megalopolis linking Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Washington in an area which encompasses about 50 million people.

Whereas at the start of the 20th century the world's urban population constituted 14% of the total, it exceeded 40% by the 1980s, a phenomenon which was also hastened by a conspicuous exodus from the countryside and often caused serious economic and social problems in the cities. Today, while urban growth in the industrialized countries has been slowed (with a quite a number of people preferring to abandon the congestion and stressful life of the city), the major metropolitan centers in the developing countries continue to become bloated, leaving crowds of peasants who often fail to find work to overflow into the dilapidated peripheral shantytowns, where they swell the ranks of the unemployed and marginalized.

**Natural population dynamics. Birth and mortality rates.** Fundamental in any analysis of natural population dynamics are the concepts of birth and mortality rates. The "natural balance" is the difference between the number of births and the number of deaths affecting a given population in the course of a year: it is positive when the births ("additions") exceed the latter ("reductions") and negative when the opposite is the case; the balance is zero when the two are the same. The birth rate is the ratio between the number of live births and the total population over a given period of time; it can be affected by such environmental factors as climate, resources, occurrence of natural disasters, etc. Conversely, the mortality rate is the ratio between the number of deaths and the total population. Its analysis distinguishes such factors as sex (to determine the variations in male and female mortality), age (to indicate numerical fluctuations in the various age groups), and occupation (to ascertain and evaluate the connection between individual activities and their pertinent labor risks). Also significant is the infant mortality rate, which reveals how many children die before completing their first year of life, likewise in relation to the total population; this rate is higher in underdeveloped societies. The ratio between the birth and mortality rates indicates the "mean life span" of a given population which, in turn, is linked to its "life expectancy," namely, the probable number of years an individual born in a given year and country will live.

**The concept of "demographic transition" and the "baby boom."** The concept of "demographic transition" indicates population growth that is due to an increase in births and/or decrease in deaths. The West experienced this phase especially in the early 18th century when scientific and particularly medical discoveries, coupled with improvements in hygienic and sanitary conditions, prompted a sharp drop in the death rate, above all in infant mortality. New demands and new lifestyles, however, have prompted a drop in the birth rate, resulting in a numerically more stable and progressively older population because of its increased average life span. The developing countries are currently experiencing a historic process of "demographic transition" due to a drastic drop in the mortality rate (as a result of the medical measures "imported" from the West) and a persistently high birth rate associated with rural

and patriarchal living conditions and attitudes. A United Nations study has projected that the demographic transition in these countries will end around the year 2050 when they, too, will follow a parallel course between the birth and mortality rate levels.

The natural population movement may also experience brief periods when the number of births or deaths flares up due to special circumstances. One such example is what has come to be called the "baby boom," which affected many industrialized nations during the decade following World War II as a result of social and cultural factors associated with that particular historical period; moreover, this phenomenon of "euphoria" typical of the postwar years was influenced by a positive economic outlook. After the second half of the 1950s the "baby boom" gradually abated and was soon replaced by the opposite trend.

**Differences in demographic dynamics between North and South.** Between 1965 and 1975 the industrialized nations experienced a veritable collapse in the birth rate, and in many of them the "fertility level" dropped below the "replacement level" of two children per woman. Sweden was the first country in the world to reach this so-called "zero growth" rate in 1968, Italy in 1976. Among the factors underlying this development are the tendency to marry at a later age, increased aspirations for a better quality of life, the decision to delay the first pregnancy, and the dissemination of more effective birth-control measures. Coupled with the aging of the general population (with the number of young people declining and those over 70 expanding), this development has, in turn, generated complex social, cultural, political, and economic repercussions, such as a reversal of the trend in international migrations—no longer from Europe to the New World, but from the developing to the industrialized countries—and the fear that the labor force of the future will not be large enough to satisfy economic necessities or that it may no longer be possible to achieve the financial base required to subsidize social, educational, and welfare services, as well as the growing number of elderly and the need to establish adequate structures to meet their requirements—to mention only some of the problems.

The South, on the other hand, is undergoing a kind of "demographic explosion" which dramatically aggravates the problem of overpopulation due to an excess number of people in a country in terms of its natural resources and available technological capacity of the community. The inhabitants of the developing countries are thus destined to contribute in ever greater proportion to the future increase of the world's population (far from insignificant is the fact that today almost 40% of the people in these countries are under 15 years of age). The World Bank projects that by the year 2050 the Earth's population will reach some 10 billion people, 85% of them living in the developing countries, the population of which will have increased from the current 5 billion to 8.4 billion (as contrasted with the far smaller increase from 1.2 to 1.4 billion by 2050 in the industrialized countries). We should bear in mind that these projections are based on present-day conditions and may be partly revised as a result of government intervention, such as the campaign recently launched in France to increase the birth rate there and the successful campaign by the Chinese authorities to contain it in their country.

**Migration movements.** The number of inhabitants of a country and their national distribution are also affected by population migrations. Although various causes have influenced these migration movements in the past, they can initially be classified according to three characteristics: size, motive, and duration.

In terms of size, a further distinction can be made between "mass migrations" and "migration by infiltration"—the former referring to the movement of entire populations, whereas the latter involves smaller groups or even only single individuals. Both result in ethnic intermixing, with significant consequences affecting customs, language, religion, and the like.

Motives which induce people to migrate include those which lead to "spontaneous" migrations, usually prompted by economic and social reasons, sometimes by the migrant's desire to improve his or her living conditions; "organized" or "guided" migrations, often supported by government aid or state subsidies and designed to achieve a better organization or balance of the national territory by, for example, moving groups of families from depressed or high-density areas to others undergoing development; "coerced" or "forced" migrations, as dramatically exemplified by the slave trade, which transported millions of Africans to work on the American plantations especially during the 18th century.

Finally, in terms of duration, migrations can be characterized as "permanent" when the residence transfer is for an indefinite period, "temporary" when it lasts for a varying period of time and implies a return home (as in the case of seasonal nomads engaged in transhumance herding), and as "commuter" migration when those involved leave their homes only during the day, to work or study elsewhere, and return in the evening; included in this latter category are the "border commuters," who live in border areas and work on the other side of the frontier.

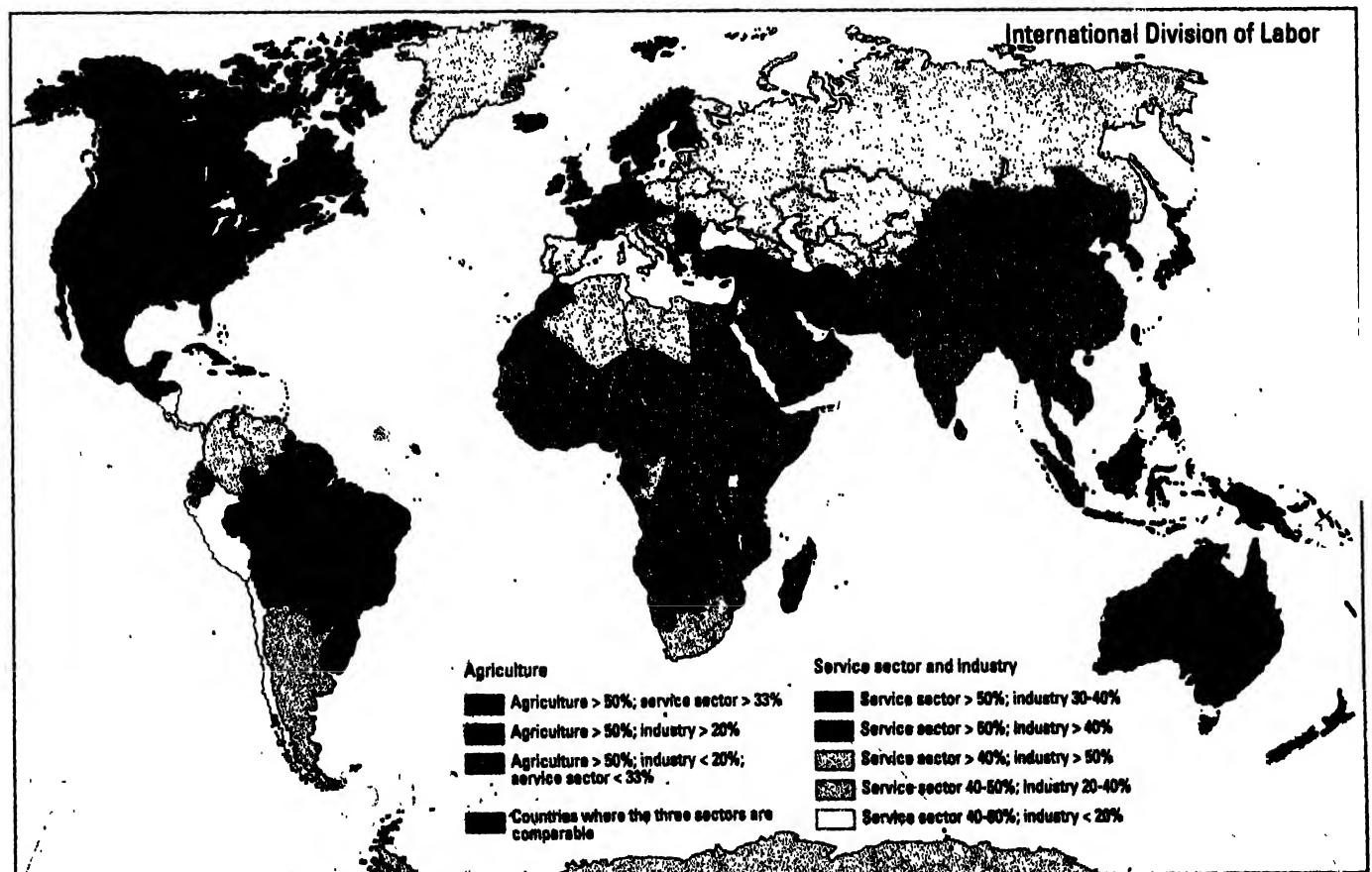
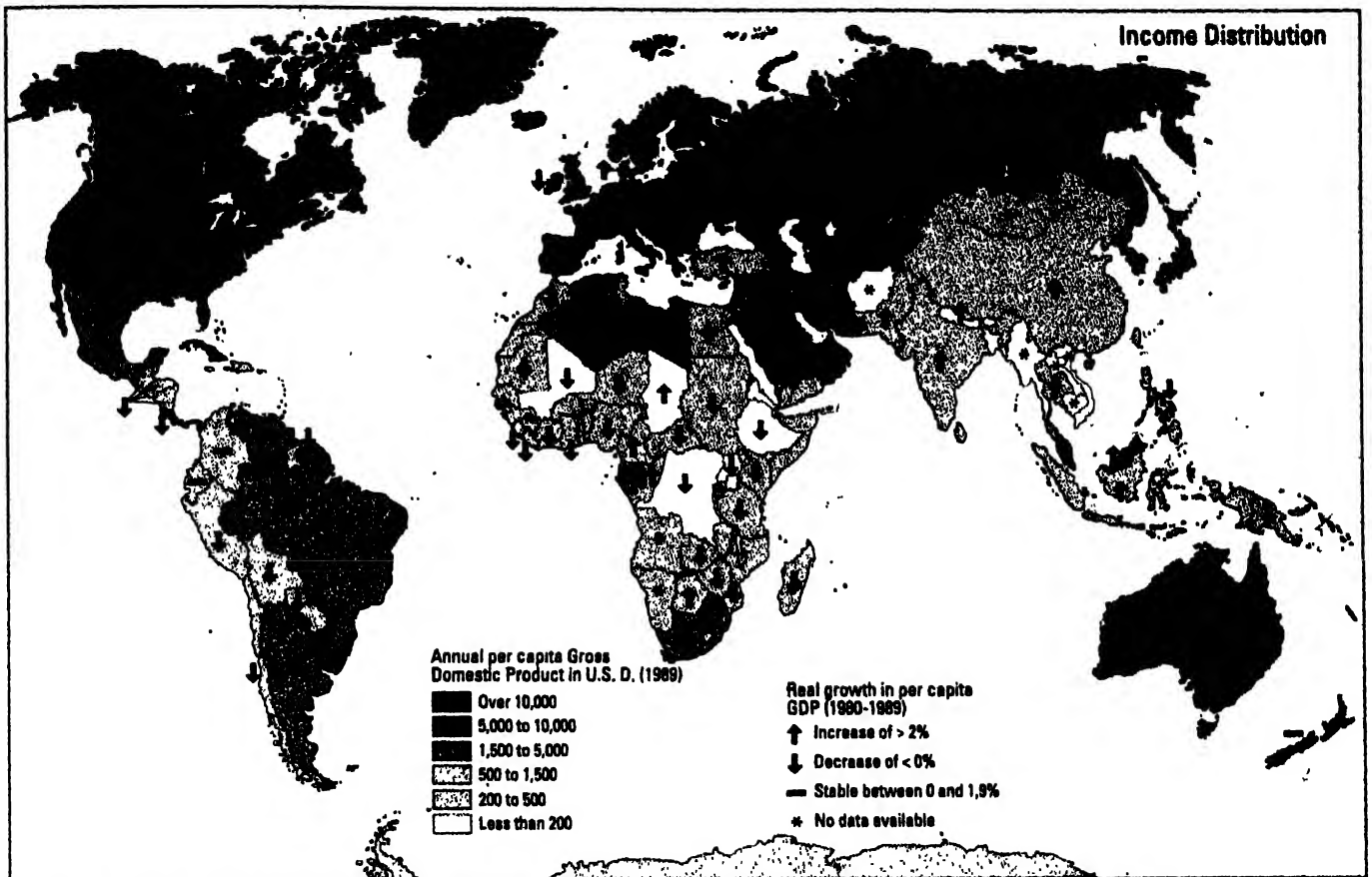
Among the major migrations of the recent past on our planet, the one of paramount significance was surely that which brought a great number of Europeans to the New World during the past two centuries. Between 1800 and 1930 some 40 million people left the European continent permanently for the Americas, impelled by the desire to leave behind trying social, political, and economic conditions to find stable and remunerative work. These emigrants came in successive waves of ethnic groups. Initially, North America attracted primarily Anglo-Saxon settlers, while Spanish and Portuguese emigrants came to South America. They were followed by many Germans and Scandinavians who, in turn, were succeeded at the end of the 19th century by increasing numbers of emigrants from the Mediterranean and eastern Europe: Italians, Greeks, and subjects of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. It has been estimated that about 28 million people emigrated to the United States between 1861 and 1920. Emigration waves have not been constant, however, either in time or size, nor with regard to their composition or direction. The example of Italy is a case in point: until the 1970s it was a country of emigration (both internal and international), but for some time now it has become a goal for immigrants, with a substantial number of them (estimated at between 500,000 and over one million) originating outside the EC, coming from Africa, South America, and Asia—often finding work in marginal and precarious occupa-

tions. Today, as in the past, the problems associated with migration have retained some of their basic characteristics. The goal is not to provoke—or at least to limit—imbalances in the population structure of the country of emigration as well as in the host country by preventing social tensions and marginalization, promoting the processes of integration and solidarity, and turning to best account the potential "human capital" inherent in the different ethnic, cultural, and religious differences. In the words of Aristide R. Zolberg:

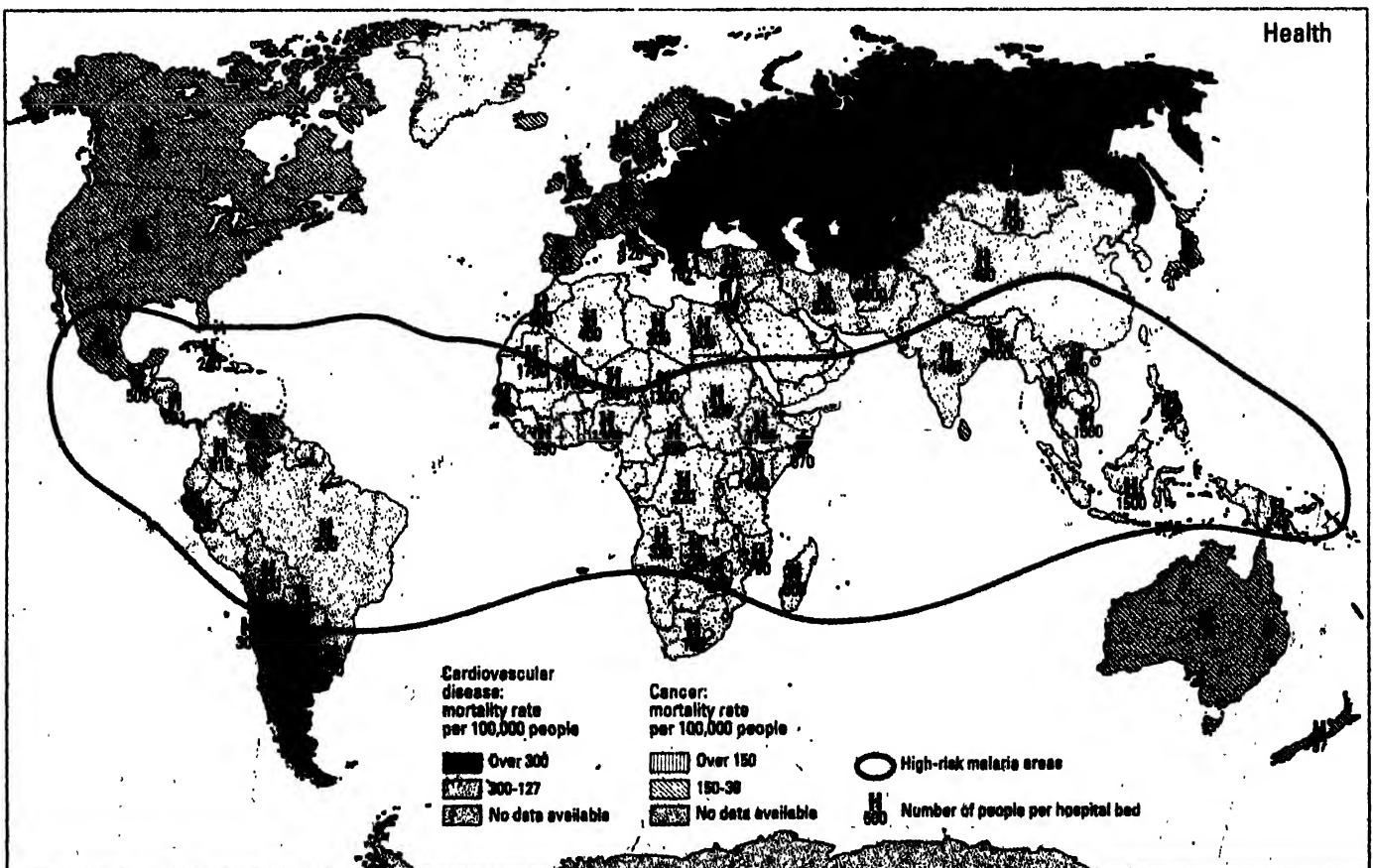
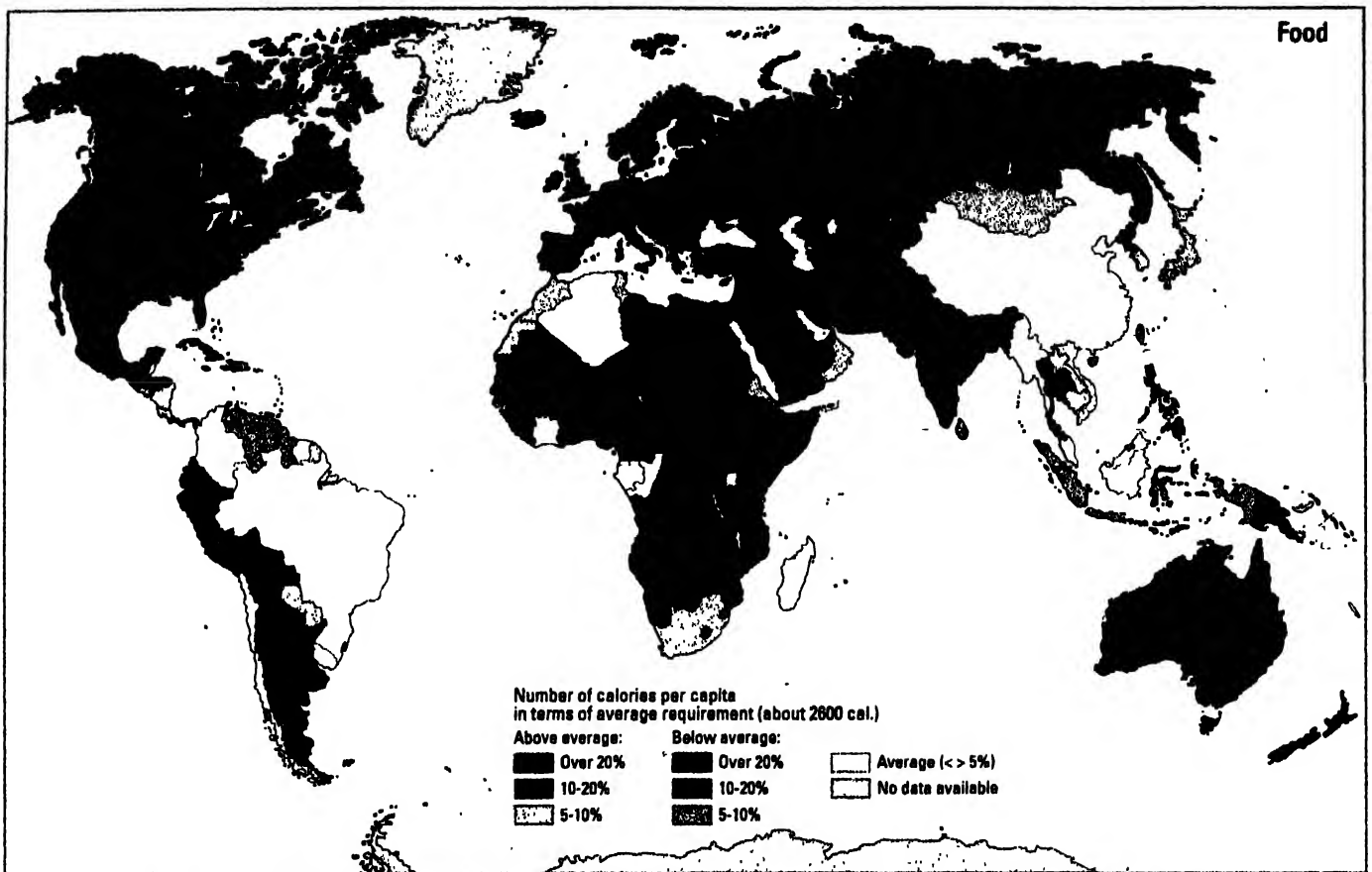
*The dynamics which have driven population movements to the center of humanistic and political concern during the past quarter century will probably be amplified in the next. Given the persistent inequalities in the conditions prevailing between the rich and poor countries, the number of potential participants in the flow of migration will continue to increase, and because the rich countries have erected a collective wall of protection around them, we must anticipate an increase in North-South tensions with regard to migration which will lead to demands for the inclusion of more equitable agreements within the framework of the "new world order." In the meantime, liberalization in the socialist countries will also present a dilemma to the capitalist democracies. And yet, despite its importance, the subject of international migration has attracted relatively little attention as a subject for ethical reflection.*

**International organizations.** There are large international organizations throughout the world today whose objective is to seek a peaceful resolution of conflict between countries and to promote various opportunities for collaboration between their member states. The most important and best known is the United Nations (UN), with headquarters in New York at the United Nations Building, which was established by the San Francisco Charter in June of 1945. It is universal in character and, in principle, is open to all nations. Its objective is to maintain international peace and security as well as to promote international cooperation in economic, social, and cultural affairs. Today the UN, which encompasses almost all of the world's countries, is structured into six principal organs: the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council, the Trusteeship Council, the International Court of Justice, and the Secretariat. The work of the United Nations is supported by and integrated into a number of affiliated agencies: the International Labour Organization (ILO), headquartered in Geneva and designed to foster greater social justice in labor legislation; the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), headquartered in Rome, where the seat of the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) is also located; the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), headquartered in Paris; the World Health Organization (WHO), headquartered in Geneva; the International Monetary Fund (IMF), headquartered in Washington, D.C., where the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD), known as the World Bank, is also located; and the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO), with headquarters in Vienna. Also affiliated with the UN are agencies that promote and coordinate international collaboration in the fields of postal services (UPU), telecommunications (ITU), civil aviation (ICAO), meteorology (OMM), maritime activities (IMCO),









commercial agreements (GATT), and the peaceful uses of atomic energy (IAEA). Another auxiliary agency operating under UN auspices is the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF), founded in 1946, headquartered in New York.

In addition to the above world organizations, we should mention other partly supranational organizations of a political-economic or military nature, such as the European Community (EC), North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), Arab League, Colombo Plan for Cooperative Economic Development in South and Southeast Asia, and the Organization of African Unity (OAU). After undergoing extensive revision and review, the Warsaw Pact and COMECON created in eastern Europe after World War II to counteract similar military and economic organizations established in the West have been dissolved following recent political events.

**Center and periphery—North and South.** *The concept of center and periphery on a world scale.* A geographic concept often invoked these days relates to the center and its periphery. A city can be seen as a kind of "motor" (or center) which dominates the outlying surrounding area (or periphery). This same model can be adapted to various levels: an economically advanced region, for example, can be the center of a larger area which it dominates, and a country that is especially highly developed economically can, in turn, be the center of an even larger area. Scholars generally think along the lines of the city and its hinterland, the region, the nation, the "extended space" covering a supranational territory, and the world.

Paralleling the concept of "center and periphery" is that of "socio-spatial class." In practice, a homogeneous social group living in a given space constitutes a socio-spatial class. The dominant socio-spatial class in a given city is, of course, also the leading protagonist in the organization of the territory that is supported by that city. Similarly, the socio-spatial class which dominates a particular country will also play a dominant role in the organization of that part of the world which gravitates around that country. It is clear at this point that the center is identified with the dominant socio-spatial class, whereas the surrounding area or periphery is identified with the dominated class. In modern history, Western Europe—and Great Britain, in particular—emerged as the first great economic center on a world scale, a position notably consolidated by the Industrial Revolution. Toward the end of the 19th century, the United States also asserted itself as one of the major economic systems of the planet and in the 20th century two other countries—the Soviet Union and Japan—established themselves as dominant in the world economy. Although other countries have also reached a high standard of living, they are usually not regarded as major centers; this is the case of Australia, whose small population and economic system specializing in limited sectors do not allow for an economic development of world significance.

Involved in the "center-periphery" and "socio-spatial class" models on a world scale are the issues of development and underdevelopment: the developed countries constitute the "center" and those dependent on them the "periphery." Two contradictory theories exist with regard to the relations

between them: some scholars maintain that the development of the richer countries has also benefited the poorer ones, whereas others affirm that the economically more advanced nations have derived an unequal share of the benefits of world progress, thereby causing, increasing or, at the very least, maintaining the poverty of the less developed countries and their socio-spatial classes.

*Developmental indicators and the concept of "quality of life."* The degree of economic and social development achieved by a country and the attendant level of the quality of life of its people are determined by specific statistical indicators, such as, for example, its overall and per capita gross national product, occupational structure of its economically active population, national and per capita consumption of energy, percentage of the urban population compared to the total population, economic and social infrastructures (number of hospital beds, cars, telephones, etc.), number of available calories per capita, infant mortality rate, life expectancy at birth, and so on.

It should be borne in mind, however, that these indicators, especially if considered individually, do not always fully reflect all aspects of reality. First of all, they provide no qualitative indications: a hospital bed in the Third World, for example, may not be accompanied by the same health-care facilities that are available in developed countries. Moreover, these data cannot evaluate precisely how much of the national production is intended for domestic consumption (a factor which in many poor countries is extremely important to the very survival of the population). And finally, calculating the gross national product in U.S. dollars does not take into account the differences in purchasing power of the same income in countries which have reached different stages of development (the quantity of food that US\$50, for example, will buy in the United States is obviously quite different from what it will buy in Laos). Nonetheless, developmental indicators will provide a variegated and, on the whole, truthful picture of the quality of life in each country and also permit significant comparisons.

*Developed and underdeveloped countries.* The various countries of the world are often grouped in two large blocs: the developed and the underdeveloped, or—as they are called today—developing countries. The first includes the industrialized areas with a high standard of living, such as Europe, North America, Japan, and Australia. The second includes the poorer nations, which are often characterized by economic stagnation and high population growth as, for example, the countries of sub-Saharan Africa, Indochina, and some regions of Central and South America. Intermediate between them are some recently industrialized countries whose development is primarily based on exports of mineral resources (especially petroleum) and foreign investments, as is the case of certain Asian, northern African, and Latin American countries.

The developed nations, with a combined population of about 30 percent of the world's total, have absolute dominance over all economic sectors and, in various instances, are able to monopolize and steer the international market along the lines of their own interests. There is a huge income gap between the richest and poorest areas of our planet: the gross national product of the United States, Japan, and western Europe, for example, exceeds by more than one hundred times that of

Bangladesh or the Sahel countries.

Passage from the underdeveloped to the developed stage is difficult and generally requires a series of transitions which, although not necessarily mandatory, are in theory indicative of the traditional steps required: starting from what is termed the "incipient preindustrial" stage, which is characterized by agriculture, a developing country will progress to the "mature preindustrial" or "incipient industrial" stage, with the gradual establishment of manufacturing, a middle class, and at least one major regional industrial center. This leads to the phase of "industrial maturity" marked by a "full-blown industry" and a "postindustrial" stage through which the leading sector of the economy gradually shifts to the "service sector" with the development of advanced services. It is theoretically in this phase, which today characterizes the most advanced countries, that well-being is highest, regional imbalances inconspicuous, and the middle class is the largest. At this stage, the original industrial center has been replaced by an urbanized region where population, economic activity, and decision-making power are concentrated.

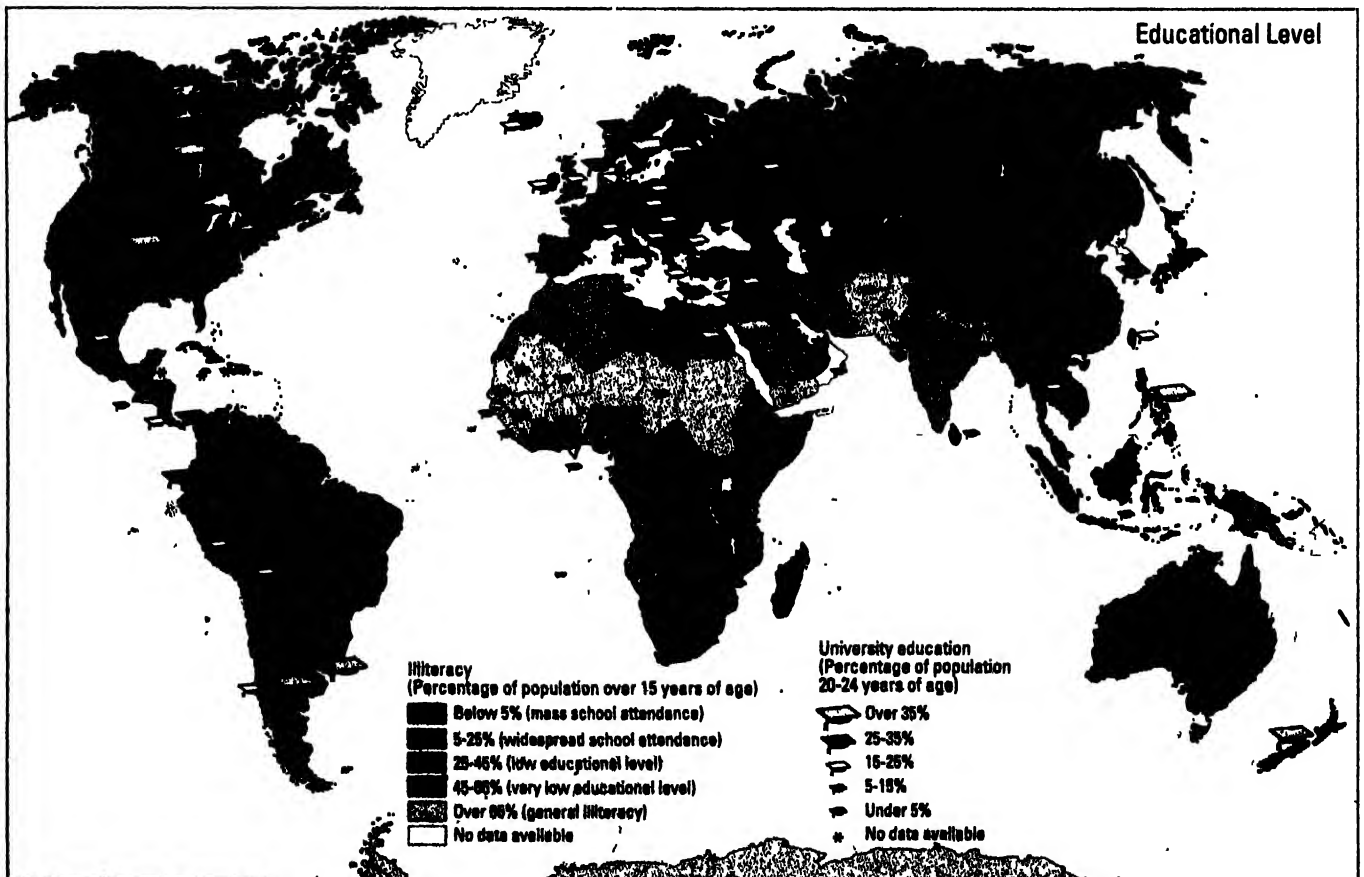
**What definition to adopt?** Today there are various ways and terms to distinguish the economically richest nations from the disadvantaged ones. One of the most common expressions used to categorize the poor countries of our planet is the "Third World," an expression derived from a concept, today superseded, which distinguished the areas of the world with a low standard of living and a weak economic structure from the "First" and "Second" worlds representing, respectively, the capitalist countries with a market economy and the communist

and formerly communist countries with a planned economy. A further distinction, the "Fourth World," is used to designate forty or so countries which are not only tragically poor but also deprived of any potential for development (because of the absence of exportable land or subsoil resources).

Some social scientists speak of "underdeveloped countries," a formulation others reject as negative because it gives the appearance of being racist or potentially racist. They prefer the term "developing countries," but even this definition does not convince everyone because it does not reflect reality and, on the whole, offers a simplistic or overoptimistic vision.

Recently, a new expression has gained currency, which distinguishes the "North" of the world from the "South." According to this dichotomy, the "North" includes the industrialized nations of the temperate zone, regardless of their type of economy (capitalist or communist), specifically, Europe, North America, and Japan. The "South," on the other hand, designates the intertropical countries and those situated in the Southern Hemisphere which are not yet industrialized—in short, that vast part of the world plagued by a low or very low standard of living and tormented by the specter of famine. (It should be mentioned here that several countries geographically located in the South of our planet—such as Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa—in fact belong to the North economically.)

**The various realities of development.** Today, humanity is passing through a delicate phase of its existence. On the one hand, it is undeniable that several countries have in certain respects experienced improvements in their average standard



of living—although in widely varying degree, depending on the geographic area considered—as compared to the previous century; on the other hand, we must admit that even where there has been real and substantial progress it has often caused various kinds of imbalance, at times of considerable gravity.

Specifically, the industrial and postindustrial periods have been characterized by a number of social problems. The migration of large masses of farmers from the countryside to the cities, for example, has undermined a world founded on solid traditions, often creating critical tensions and marginalization in the urban areas. Intensification of the very mechanization and automation of production processes has led to a loss of jobs (without a concomitant absorption of discharged workers by the service sector), which in some cases has exacerbated existing imbalances. Moreover, a given type of economy and lifestyle engendered by especially rapid and “aggressive” growth has increasingly penalized the traditions of cooperation rather than competition among individuals and groups. Exemplifying these developments is the case of the United States which, although it is the richest country in the world, is witnessing the coexistence of two dramatically antithetical realities: a prosperous and wealthy nation living alongside another that is extremely poor and rent by social conflict (we need only remember that over 30 million people in the U.S. live below the poverty level).

Among the serious problems we face today are the sometimes indiscriminate consumption of our nonrenewable natural resources and the various forms of atmospheric, water, and noise pollution, although we must recognize that humankind is becoming increasingly aware of the risks that such behavior can cause. Notwithstanding the persistence of obvious cases of environmental destruction (one glaring example is the progressive devastation of the Amazon rainforest), technological progress itself is being enlisted to constantly reduce pollution by decreasing pollution levels in the areas most at risk, creating alternate sources of energy, and recycling used resources, among other measures. Only thus can development really coincide with effective and global human growth, based on respect of the environment and a realistic and intelligent interaction with it.

**Aspects and causes of underdevelopment.** As mentioned, underdevelopment reflects a low or substandard degree of economic growth in terms of a mean reference level, and is variously characterized by such phenomena as poverty, famine, overpopulation, and a low quality of life: nutrition is inadequate (with an incomplete and insufficient protein diet), the birth rate is high, endemic diseases are still common (as a result, life expectancy remains relatively low), most of the area's population is engaged in subsistence farming, and there is a great lack of economic and social infrastructure (inadequate communications, waterworks, sewage systems, schools, hospitals, etc.). Among the most characteristic symptoms of underdevelopment are the great imbalances which, in varying degree, characterize the economic and social life of many lagging countries. There, in fact, we often find a notable discrepancy between the center and the periphery (not only on an urban but also on a regional scale); a few more active and productive zones are surrounded by vast backward areas with which they often have no link. Examples of such countries are

India and Brazil, where a limited number of rich, developed areas, whose growth is frequently chaotic and tumultuous, and a restricted agrarian and entrepreneurial elite are confronted by a far more widespread reality of misery and indigence in a situation of extreme disparity.

Underdevelopment is basically caused by the lack of conditions which would favor the emergence of a process of accumulation and economic growth, which may be due to either internal or external circumstances. The former are related to historical, cultural, religious, and similar factors, among which the philosophical and religious outlook of a given people plays an important role. There are belief systems which equate the ideal life with detachment from power, wealth, and success, or those in which respect for tradition means a return to the past, a static approach, and the preservation of only the oldest customs. A people among whom such notions predominate obviously consider work a means of survival only and have little interest in accumulating economic wealth, much less in fostering a competitive attitude.

Other causes of underdevelopment derive from concrete problems of physical geography, especially those related to climate (aridity and famine, or, conversely, unexpected inundations and floods, etc.). The wrong economic choices, such as the widespread cultivation of poorly suited crops, or preferences granted a manufacturing sector lacking the necessary infrastructure, for example, may also have serious consequences. Moreover, in some cases, direct responsibility for the lack of growth must be laid at the door of certain corrupt ruling classes who are far more mindful of protecting their own interests than those of the people.

Among the external causes of underdevelopment are usually such negative factors as colonialism and its successor, neocolonialism. An important aspect of this latter phenomenon can be found today in what have been called “unequal exchanges,” which tend to maintain the countries of the Third World in a position of economic backwardness because these developing countries can often export only, or primarily, raw materials or agricultural produce (and sometimes even only a single product) and must import or do without every other conceivable kind of commodity. The developed countries, on the other hand, assign a higher price to industrial manufactures (which incorporate the “value added” by skilled labor and the equipment used to produce them) and thus render the poorer countries constantly dependent.

**Colonialism and neocolonialism.** The relationships which the countries of the Third World have had in past centuries with the richer and more industrialized nations are among the main causes of underdevelopment. The onset of the modern era saw a few European countries conquer many regions of the world, leading to “colonialism,” or the extension of sovereignty by powerful nations over territories with few inhabitants or a weaker economic and social organization of the population. Great Britain, France, Spain, Portugal, Holland, and other nations built their own economic development on the domination and exploitation of the colonized countries. Today it can be asserted that entire continents, such as the Americas and Australia, are “Europes outside of Europe”: in past centuries these have been colonized, inhabited, and governed by Europeans who initially acted on behalf of the parent country, but

later made themselves independent of it.

In the colonized countries, the Europeans have long exploited the population and the riches, sometimes exterminating or decimating the original inhabitants (like the Aztecs and Incas in Latin America or the Aborigines in Australia) and have generally tended to exercise a harsh material and cultural domination. Colonialism therefore certainly does not favor local economic development or foster the formation of an active autonomous entrepreneurial class; if anything, it reinforces the power of local lords and rich landowners, often through internal tensions and conflicts.

Thus, even after regaining their independence (often at the cost of hard struggles), the countries of the Third World were long burdened by their negative colonial legacy. To this day, their frequently fragile economies—based as often as not on the marketing of a single product—are still controlled by the former colonial powers, which continue to manage the markets and thus determine the economic life of the developing countries (some of which are governed by ultraconservative leaders motivated by their own personal interests), accomplishing this also through financial investments and loans that reinforce their dependence and ties. This is the phenomenon of neocolonialism which, even if with connotations different from those of the past, continues to control the economic and political life of the developing countries and contributes to maintaining the imbalances between the world's North and South.

**World hunger and future outlook.** Famine is a daily tragedy of many Third World populations: World Bank and FAO data show that today half a billion people are undernourished or starving and that over a billion are "malnourished" because their diet is lacking in the necessary vitamins and proteins.

When nutrition is quantitatively insufficient, the ensuing "acute famine" is due to the concrete lack of calories indispensable for survival (the daily requirement is 2400–2500 calories). However, when the nutritional deficiency is qualitative, it leads to what has been called "occult famine," due to the severe shortage of certain substances necessary for healthy growth of the organism as a result of a one-sided diet based on a single plant food. As a consequence, the body is weakened by hunger and becomes sick, often falling prey to diseases such as rickets, beri-beri, scurvy, and the like, or becomes less resistant to the spread of infectious diseases or trachoma; extreme inanition finally leads to death by starvation which currently claims 50 million victims a year.

Is it possible to break the chain of underdevelopment, poverty, and famine? It is well to clarify that underdevelopment is not inevitably and solely due to the past economic and political oppression of the colonial powers, nor is it only linked to the lack of capital and natural resources. In general, it is determined by a complex concatenation of negative factors that make the possibility of reaching or even attempting a definitive solution exceedingly difficult. Breaking the spiral of poverty often requires changing a deep-seated cultural mind-set which in some countries would mean reforming political and social structures that have been dominant for centuries. Some nations have succeeded in this difficult task, sometimes achieving exceptional results (as in the case of Japan), but as often as not the path has been a bloody one, leading to dictatorship (as in Idi Amin's Uganda) or to intransigent forms of political or religious

ideology (as in Cambodia and Iran, respectively).

The outlook for the future is still uncertain and will surely also depend on the help which the more advanced countries can and wish to extend to those still undergoing development. Until a few years ago it was thought that the economic growth of these latter countries could be brought about by large investments in the manufacturing sector on the part of the richer nations, resulting in the construction of many industries which, as it turned out, were often poorly integrated with local realities. The facts on the ground have rather demonstrated that real and lasting development must be founded on the actual internal resources of these countries and on the establishment of adequate economic and social infrastructures; only thus can their human and material potential be turned to advantage. However substantial the economic infrastructure may be in any given case, more essential still is the social infrastructure: in fact, improvements in average educational and health levels are of pivotal importance in launching a country's growth. But the difficulties involved continue to be considerable. They are further accentuated by the fact that it is precisely the less developed countries of the Third World which have the highest demographic growth, and this of course tends to maintain their infrastructure levels low, or even to decrease them.

It is therefore obviously necessary to coordinate international assistance and to tailor it to the individual local situations. It is only thus that the aid from the world's "center" will reach and profit its "periphery," generating an evolutionary phase destined to last in time.

## ECONOMIC RESOURCES

The 20th century is marked by exceptional demographic growth, industrial research and development with an increasingly technological focus, the globalization of markets, the conquest of space (through aeronautics and telecommunications) and of outer space (through satellites, space probes, and missions), and environmental problems.

These themes—directly or indirectly also tied to problems related to the identification, possession, utilization, and replenishment of resources—then interact with the more strictly economic characteristics of individual countries, sometimes resulting in the creation of dangerous international political tensions.

Steven B. Jones has defined resources as a totality of factors, not all of which are material:

*... anything a nation has, can obtain, or can conjure up to support its strategy. ... resources are as tangible as soil, as intangible as leadership, as measurable as population, as difficult to measure as patriotism. There is no common unit, and no statistical summation is possible.*

For millennia the world economy drew its principal sources of sustenance from the most elementary sectors (agriculture, livestock raising, fishing, forestry, mining, and metalworking), with a modest contribution from manufacturing and trade. It was only during the second half of the 18th century that a sys-



tematic process of transforming goods began to take shape, supported by increasingly broad technological innovations, which led to the rapid development of industrial and commercial activities. This process is still in a phase of intensified evolution, marked by unexpected advances exemplified, for instance, by ongoing research in the field of biotechnology, in the utilization of special ceramic materials (superconductors), and in the harnessing of nuclear, wind, and geothermal energy. On the other hand, the increase in demand as a result of demographic growth and the improvement of general living conditions has led to more intensive and diversified use of available resources. For example, while little more than a century ago petroleum was used in very small amounts and only for illumination, today this natural resource is consumed in massive quantities in the energy and industrial fields. In other words, the development of new technologies (such as the application of the internal combustion engine to means of locomotion, or the adaptation of chemical synthesis processes to the production of textile fibers and plastics) has, in a sense, led to the "discovery" of resources that were previously not considered as such.

All this raises disturbing questions about the future ecological balance of our entire planet. In fact, "progress" has not been without its negative repercussions, most significantly reflected in the inequalities affecting the distribution of wealth among various nations, in damage to the environment, in the spread of new diseases, and in the decay of certain social and cultural values.

**Human resources.** The total number of individuals constituting a given country's "economically active population"—to use rather dry demographic terminology—is also a significant factor affecting the creation of revenue and the development dynamics of various economic realities. Over time, this resource as well has undergone an extensive process of evolution that has often led to profound social, political, and economic changes which have left their marks along the human historical path. For example, the changes that occurred during the second half of the 19th century as a result of the labor movements that accompanied the development of the industrial sector reflected workers' growing awareness of their role in relation to the use of capital and the formation of wealth. In the past, human resources were symbiotically tied to and almost inseparable from land resources (characteristic of an agricultural economy). With the advent of industrial culture, these resources partly shifted to the development of a synergistic role with capital and rapidly moved toward a new tie with technology, which was increasingly regarded as an indispensable tool for the betterment of general living conditions. This meant a reevaluation of the human element and its more direct involvement in decision-making processes that stimulate and encourage general development. Unfortunately, however, these changes occur in varying measure from country to country, leaving behind vast "backward" areas, with resulting notable social and economic imbalances. In the industrialized nations the human/technology ratio has evolved rapidly, with the continuous creation of new tools to promote the production of revenue and alleviate the exertions of manual labor. In contrast, change has been decidedly slower in the underdeveloped and developing areas and is thwarted by a perverse mechanism by which the necessity of meeting basic needs often limits the attainment of more ambitious goals.

**Agriculture and forestry.** In antiquity, roughly 50% of the Earth's land was blanketed by forests; today 10% is used as farmland, 20% represents prairies and pastureland, 28% consists of woods and forests, and the remaining 42% is uncultivated and unproductive. Our constant overexploitation of arable soil, but above all the great demographic pressure witnessed in poorer countries, accompanied in the tropical regions by slow desertification (with the soil not always cultivated in accordance with the most appropriate methods), have resulted in a growing need for food. According to estimates made by the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization, in order to solve the problem of malnutrition (which now affects over a billion individuals) cultivated land must be increased by 15% to reach a total of approximately 5 billion acres [2 billion ha].

According to Norman J. G. Pounds, writing in *Political Geography*, there is room for extending crop farming and expanding food production:

*In all countries there is a little slack that could be taken up, if only temporarily, but the range of foods that could be produced is limited by conditions of soil and climate as well as by the volume of capital investment. Any permanent increase in the extent of cropland in such countries would involve the cultivation of land which is now considered submarginal. This, in turn, would necessitate larger labor or capital inputs, so that the return on effort or investment would be likely to become smaller. In this way the overall standard of living would fall, creating, perhaps, some kind of political resistance.*

*We know with a fair degree of accuracy the extent of cultivated land in all countries of the world. What we need is comparative studies of the use of marginal and submarginal land. We need to know whether land of a quality which is left unused in Great Britain or New Zealand would have been cultivated had it been in Poland or Romania; whether and how the dry lands of the western plains of the United States would have been used if the Chinese who migrated to Manchuria had instead settled there. In other words, the extent of the agriculturally productive land is dependent, largely or partly, on the standard of living and the level of technological development of the people who cultivate it....*

*It is impossible without further studies of this kind to say whether, to what extent, and under what conditions agriculture can be expanded.*

Agricultural lands, once used predominantly for extensive cultivation, are increasingly affected by new production technologies (crop rotation, mechanization of farming, seed selection, advanced irrigation systems, creation of new hybrids, and the use of fertilizers and fungicides as well as, unfortunately, pesticides and herbicides that sometimes have negative consequences). These technologies increase the land's productivity in terms of both quantity and quality. The development of trade, greenhouse cultivation, conservation techniques, and the improvement of transportation systems and international communications have made it possible for many different countries, regardless of their geographic position or growing season, to have access to agricultural products throughout the year. Thus, for example, countries in the Northern Hemisphere can obtain fresh fruits and vegetables even during the winter months, eliminating the previous need to wait for "early produce."

Side by side with the production of food, a lively agro-indus-



trial sector has developed that focuses on both the canning of agricultural products and their transformation into fruit juices and other beverages, frozen and pre-cooked foods, etc., either for immediate consumption or later use.

However, certain countries have socioeconomic inequities and unstable climates, so that there continue to be areas where there is a surplus production of food and others where local food needs are for the most part unmet, causing widespread malnutrition and underdevelopment. This problem is compounded by single-crop farming, which frequently characterizes such areas. The many countries where this takes place, already subject to meteorological instability (typhoons, floods, droughts) and periodic famine, also become dependent on world market prices. Excessive single-crop farming, often widespread and generally caused by chronic pressures of malnutrition, has frequently modified the vegetation of entire territories (for example the sub-Saharan region of Africa and the Amazonian forests), with a gradual and systematic depletion of tree cover and finally a general deterioration of the soil. More strictly industrial crops (cotton and hemp, for example) have had an increasing impact in certain regions, along with the development of the manufacturing sector, and in many cases constitute an important source of foreign exchange.

During the past several years the exploitation of forest resources in many countries has finally been subjected to more farsighted criteria that take into account the need to safeguard the local ecological balance. Furthermore, the utilization of wood and all its by-products (including processing waste and rejected material), together with the application of more advanced industrial technologies and the use of certain replacement plastic materials, has reduced the indiscriminate felling of trees and, therefore, helped (albeit still modestly) to preserve the world's forest resources.

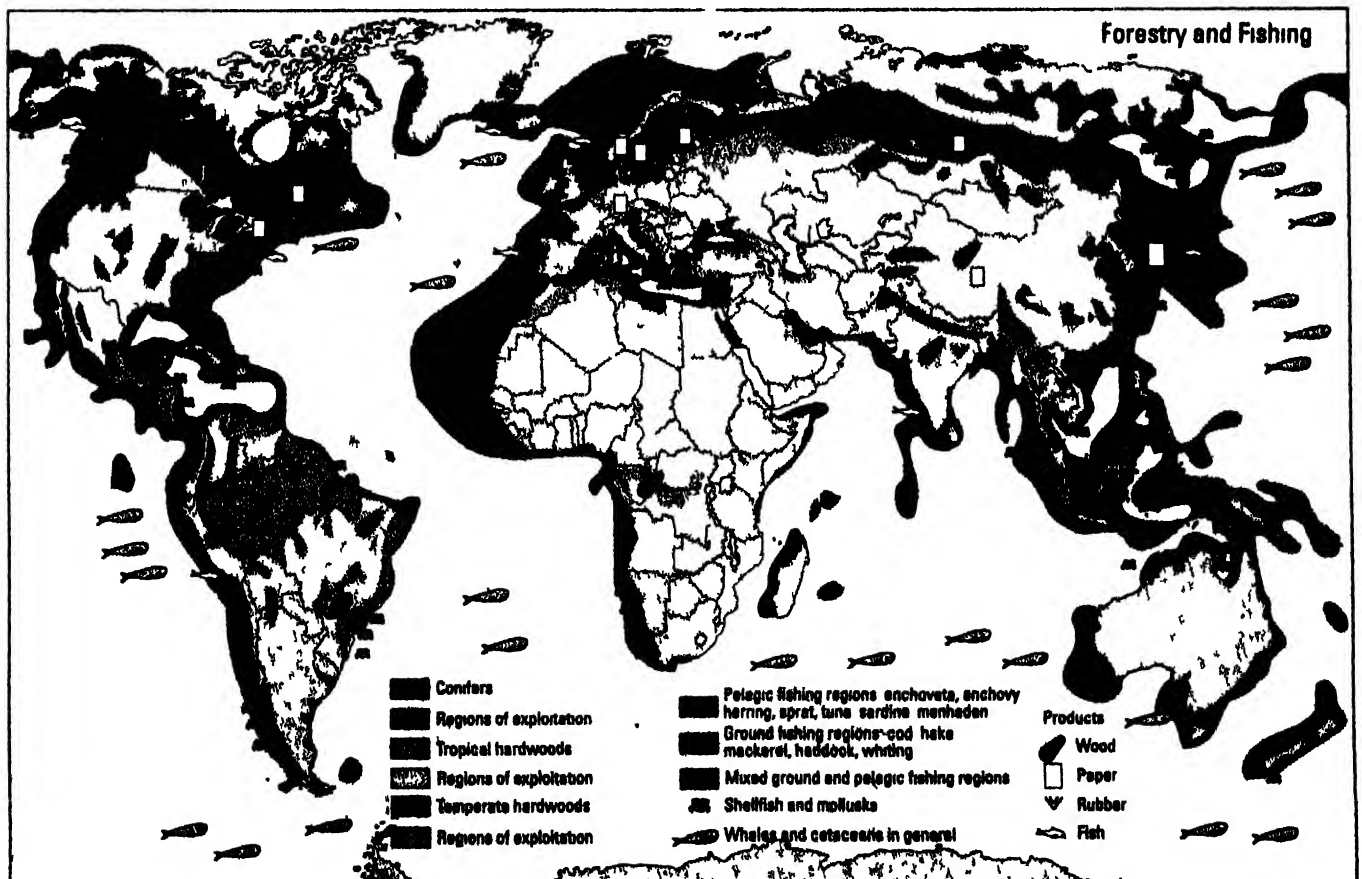
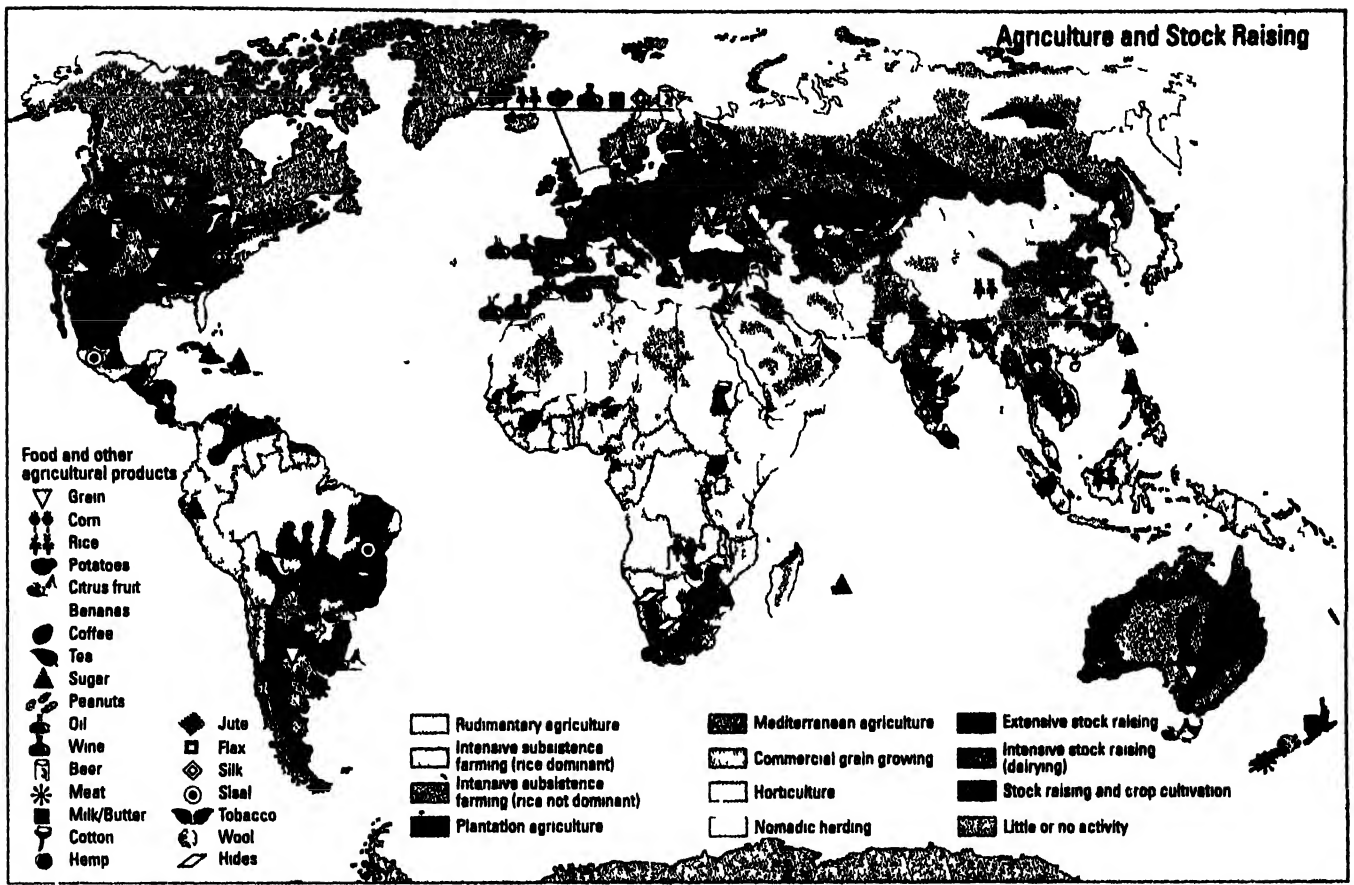
**Livestock raising and fishing.** As with the other sectors mentioned thus far, livestock raising has also been affected in recent decades by important structural and technological changes. The selection and improvement of breeds, the use of selected feeds, systematic disease prevention, more modern milking and slaughtering techniques, and advanced standards for the raising of fowl, among other measures, have appreciably increased yields and have promoted the growth of the dairy industry as well as those industries involved in the preservation and processing of meat and the use of animal by-products. However, this sector too is marked by some areas of surplus production (particularly in Europe, North America, and Latin America) and other areas where the use of livestock resources is still in a stage of underdevelopment.

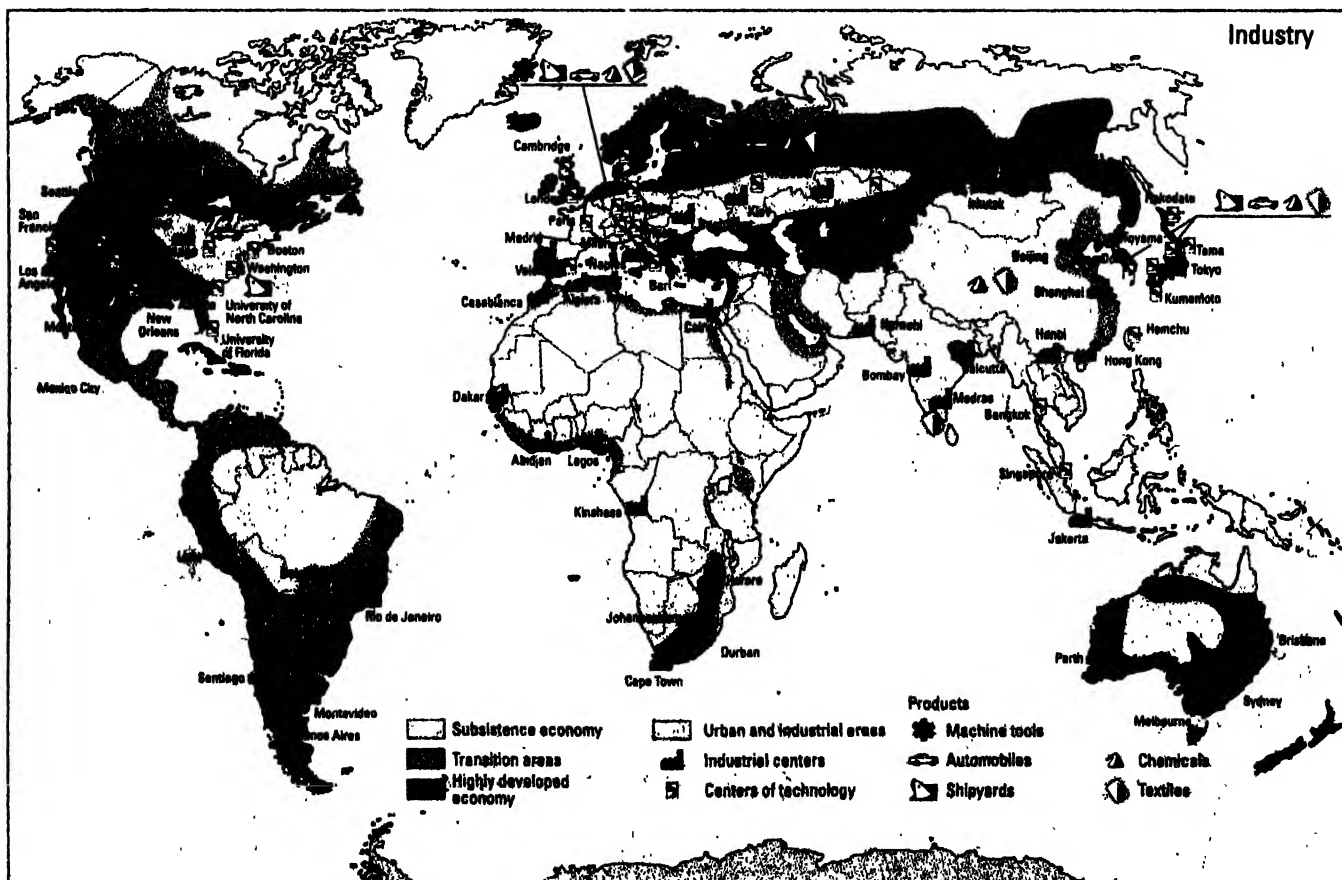
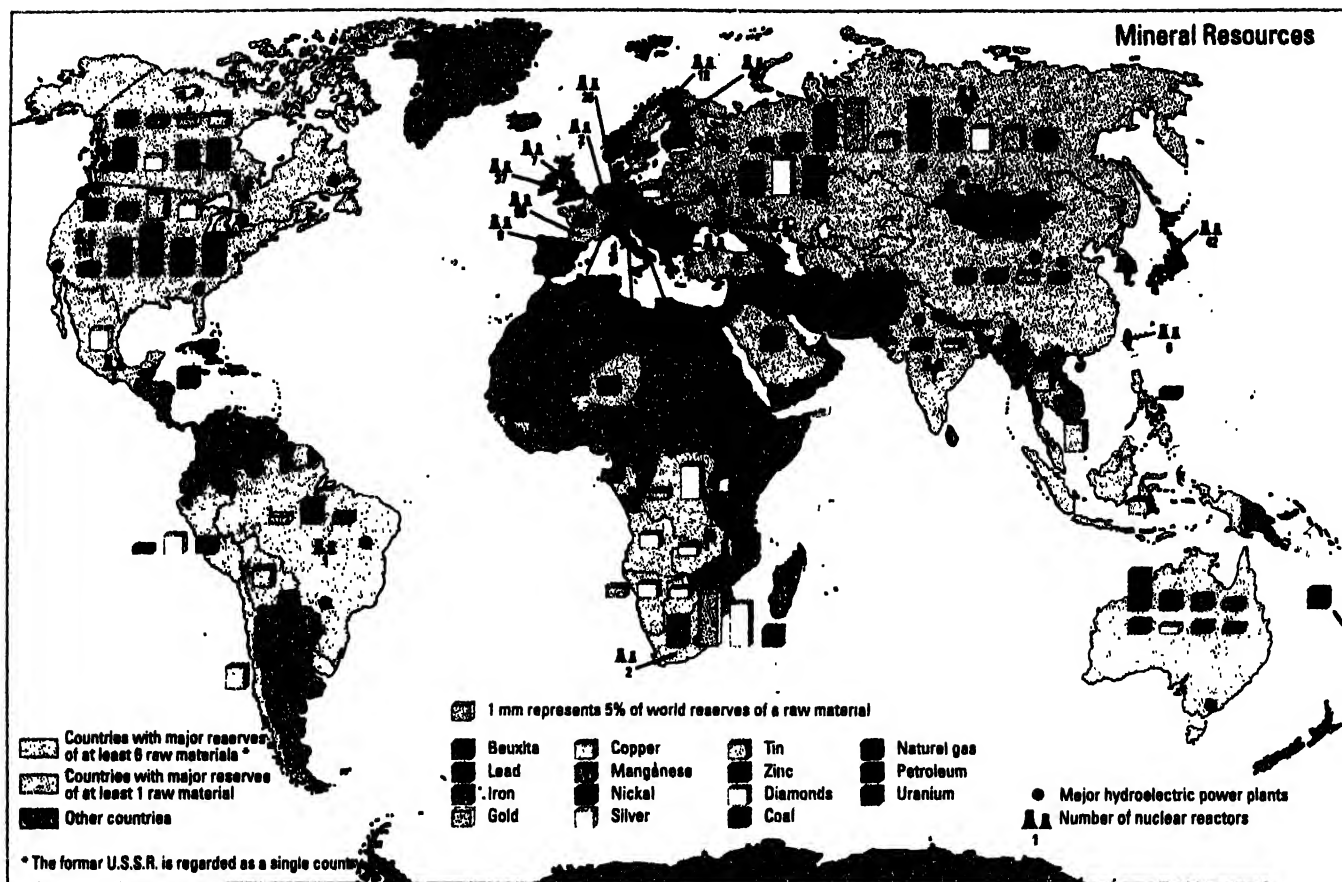
The fishing industry, which currently supplies just 5% of the world food supply, also exhibits some disturbing aspects that clearly merit closer attention by several countries, considering the repercussions on public health and the environment. The utilization of certain fishing methods (particularly dragnets) that are not always suitable to the maintenance of the necessary balance of sea life, and the progressive pollution of the oceans caused by excessive dumping of industrial toxic waste (that leaves traces of mercury, acids, and other harmful substances) or by the emission of hydrocarbons from oilfields and wells, have led to an impoverishment of marine life in many waters.

Pollution is also considered to be one of the primary causes of the spread of certain diseases caused by the consumption of poison-containing fish products. However, one positive aspect counterbalances these negative effects: the utilization of modern fishing and canning methods has increased yields, and in recent years new fish-farming techniques have shown increasingly significant results.

**Mineral reserves and energy sources. Oil, natural gas, and coal.** Oil and natural gas—primary energy sources necessary for modern development—undoubtedly represent the resources that, more than any other, for better or worse have characterized the history (in economic and other terms) of the past century. Countries without other viable economic resources (such as many states in the Arabian peninsula, Iraq, Iran, Algeria, and Libya) or overpopulated countries (such as Mexico and Nigeria) which, once they reduced their commercial subjection to the international oil companies that long monopolized the market for crude petroleum and natural gas, found the means to develop these resources themselves by direct exploitation of reserves. This has allowed them to acquire huge amounts of foreign exchange and sometimes even to affect, through price mechanisms imposed by them, the economies of more industrialized nations. To coordinate oil trade policies on international markets, in 1960 the principal oil-exporting nations (Algeria, Saudi Arabia, Ecuador, United Arab Emirates, Gabon, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Libya, Nigeria, Qatar, and Venezuela) formed OPEC (the Organization of Petroleum-Exporting Countries), a cartel with headquarters in Vienna that periodically convenes its members to agree upon the quantities of oil to be extracted and the prices to be charged for it on the market. Despite some internal problems (relating to differences of opinion about pricing strategies, the consequences of the war between Iran and Iraq, and Iraq's invasion of Kuwait, among other issues), the existence of OPEC has invested the principal oil exporters with contractual power that has influenced the market for many years and has led to their emergence as a new "group of nations" with considerable financial resources within the global economic arena. In certain cases, the excessive euphoria engendered by the availability of funds in these countries has obscured the need to implement sufficiently diversified development plans that would also not overlook other, alternative economic sectors. As a result, the economies of some of the oil-producing nations have become rather vulnerable to fluctuations in demand and, consequently, in the international prices for oil and natural gas. On the other hand, the more rational exploitation of such resources and their use in the industrialized nations has paved the way for the development of important industrial processes, resulting in an ever-greater expansion of the innumerable products that are obtained from petroleum and its derivatives.

The exploitation of coal has been intermittent, depending to a substantial degree on the vicissitudes of the oil market. For a long time, "historically" one might say, the dominance of coal was uncontested, not only in the iron and steel industry and in certain aspects of the chemical engineering industry, but also in the field of basic energy production (gas and steam, electric power, home heating, cooking fuel, and so on). Coal then entered a second phase of lesser utilization, concomitant with the





greater availability and easier extraction of petroleum. During the early 20th century, 70% of energy production was derived from coal; today it supplies only 29%. Following the 1973 oil crisis, which precipitated, among other things, a broader and more diversified use of alternate energy sources (obtained from nuclear, wind, hydroelectric, and other power) and a new concern for long-term oil conservation, coal mining once again became economically viable, and many mines that had been abandoned because they were considered to be unprofitable were reactivated.

**Mining.** The development of new industrial technologies and the demand for increasingly sophisticated products, particularly in the metallurgical and machine industries, requires (and often permits as well) the intensive exploitation of mineral resources and the use of materials that, until early in the 20th century, were of scant economic interest (such as uranium, cadmium, strontium, vanadium, and the like). The availability of such resources, which are sometimes termed "strategic," is often limited to restricted geographic areas, and, almost ironically, the countries where they are located are often in no position to utilize them directly, due to lack of adequate processing technologies. Thus, a situation is created where many producer countries are subordinate to user countries.

In recent decades, the exploitation of traditional metal ores has gone from an "extensive" to a more "intensive" phase, as the richest and most easily accessible fields have gradually neared exhaustion. For example, the numerous copper mines in Zambia and Zaire, located predominantly in the Copperbelt region, formerly yielded high metal-content ore (70–85%) from open-pit mines. The ore was then rather crudely refined and sold to user nations. With the gradual impoverishment of the richer and more readily accessible deposits, ore began to be extracted from "tunnel" mines, and in some cases the slag left over from prior refining processes was used to recover any copper left behind and to obtain other previously neglected "by-products," such as cobalt, silver, and gold. The main problem that many countries, particularly in Africa and South America, must resolve in order to more thoroughly take advantage of their mineral reserves is the difficulty of finding the enormous capital necessary to modernize mining and refining facilities and to create adequate infrastructures for transporting the ores.

**Energy production.** Energy production to satisfy the requirements of industrial development and motorization currently comes from oil (45%), coal (29%), natural gas (19%), hydroelectric sources (6%), and nuclear plants (1%). Some estimates indicate that over 50 trillion kWh of energy are consumed worldwide each year (on average in recent years), approximately 70% of which is used by industrialized or recently industrialized nations and the remaining 30% in developing, or Third World, countries. It is important to note that while in 1860 world energy consumption totaled 1.1 trillion kWh and in 1900 the figure was 6.1 trillion kWh, only 40 years ago annual global consumption had already reached approximately 21 trillion kWh. These numbers were destined to increase, due to further industrial development and population growth, and it is now predicted that energy needs in the year 2000 will be about 240 trillion kWh.

In terms of electric energy alone, in late 1988 installed power in the world was estimated to be over 2.6 billion kW, of which

23% was supplied by hydroelectric plants, 58% by conventional thermal stations (fueled by coal, oil, and gas), 6.5% by gas turbines, 12% by nuclear power plants, and the remaining 0.5% by geothermal plants. The primary energy reserves (oil, coal, gas, and uranium) should be sufficient to satisfy increasing energy demands, at least for some decades to come. However, considerable problems are foreseen in terms of both distribution (since the location of energy resources does not always correspond geographically to the areas of demand) and ecology (measures to protect the environment and to decrease or prevent pollution will impose ever-greater restraints on the creation of new facilities). One sector that will become increasingly important in future years is the production of renewable types of energy (hydroelectric, solar, wind, and biomass) which, if adequately utilized, could clearly go a long way toward reducing anxieties about further ecological damage and help to conserve primary energy reserves.

**Industrialization.** The economic development process of various countries tends for the most part toward a more balanced distribution among the primary (agriculture, livestock raising, forestry, and mining), secondary (industrial activities), and tertiary (trade, financial industries, and services) sectors that make up the GDP. And yet variations in local climatic, demographic, cultural, economic, financial, sociopolitical, and other conditions, as well as in the availability of natural resources, result in discrepancies in what realistically can be achieved. Thus there are certain situations where existing economic disparities among nations are further accentuated rather than reduced. Paradoxically, the general "road to development," while legitimate, finds greater possibilities for success in areas where basic requirements are already present and encounters much more difficult obstacles in less fortunate regions. A current if somewhat arbitrary classification divides nations into three major groups, according to the level of industrial development achieved: industrialized nations, newly industrialized nations, and "developing" nations—the so-called Third World (areas of extreme poverty).

**Industrialized nations.** In the more economically advanced nations (including the United States, Japan, Germany, France, Great Britain, Italy, and Canada, which together are called "the Group of Seven" or "G7"), industry is becoming ever more sophisticated, largely as a consequence of enormous investments in scientific and technological research, with an increasing use of electronics, robotics, computers, and production processes that utilize innovative materials, and with a decreasing use of unskilled or unspecialized labor. All this has proven necessary to maintain international competitiveness, that is, in order to adequately compete with the more recently industrialized nations. On the other hand, this continual technological renewal implies a rapid obsolescence of existing facilities and related production processes which, to some extent, are transferred to less developed countries, where they find more favorable conditions, including lower costs for labor and raw materials. The emphasis on high technology (which often accompanies the necessity to both reduce labor costs and curtail possible environmental damage) also implies to some degree the gradual abandonment of production that once gave rise to so-called "heavy industry" (particularly in the iron and steel and

basic chemical sectors). There is likewise a tendency to favor the growth of enterprises that are smaller in scale but more innovative and clearly in a better position to make use of technological advances.

Berardo Cori explains how this evolution has progressively outlined a new industrial geography:

*Some speak of the "electronic revolution," and in effect many recent changes are linked to the growing use of electronic control and programming mechanisms in industrial processes and to the spread of computer technology. The electronics industry has totally liberated itself from old factors of industrial location, including those that remained valid in neotechnical times, and has been able to make other sorts of connections. The weight of raw materials has ceased to be important and, for all practical purposes, the market is global and therefore not bound by spatial considerations. Needed, however, are capital, entrepreneurial spirit, and above all research, and these are found in "technological parks," located in "brain fields" consisting of large universities with strong scientific-technological orientations. Silicon Valley—a flat strip of land roughly 30 mi [50 km] long by 10 mi [15 km] wide between San Francisco and San Jose, California, which owes its name to silicon, the raw material used in the manufacture of computer chips—is a prime example. Its development engine is Stanford University, its annual sales US\$40 billion, its principal products pocket calculators, video games, personal computers, cordless telephones, laser technologies, microprocessors, and digital watches.*

*Other technological parks are rapidly emerging in the U.S., Japan, and even here and there in old Europe.*

**Newly industrialized and eastern European countries.** In recent decades some newly industrialized nations have appeared on the world stage (including South Korea, Hong Kong, Taiwan, and Brazil); these have been joined even more recently by the countries of eastern Europe. In the former group, the process of industrialization has witnessed extraordinarily rapid development, with, even at the beginning, an emphasis on the acquisition of fairly advanced technological processes. In eastern Europe, however, while there is a good level of basic industrialization and often notable resources in terms of raw materials and specialized personnel, technology is generally behind the times, making it difficult for these countries to compete internationally, in terms of quality and otherwise, with more advanced nations.

**Developing and Third World countries.** Current development models show that within a relatively brief period the existing gap between the most advanced and the more recently industrialized nations will decrease. This is in part a result of the relative ease with which the latter will be able to assimilate and make use of the experience gained by the former, although it is also true that there will clearly be limits to the ability of the newly industrialized nations to implement ever-greater technological advances. Yet there are many countries where the process of industrial development has failed to find satisfactory outlets and still others for which true industrialization remains little more than an aspiration. The situation in these Third World nations is further aggravated, particularly in recent years, by difficulties encountered in obtaining loans from the international financial system necessary for the required investments. Furthermore, the international market for raw materials—often

the only true economic resource of many of these countries—generally continues to be in a slump. There is a constant flow of experience and production processes from technologically highly advanced areas to those undergoing industrialization ("technology transfer"), and this flow, as was noted, may soon lead to a gradual reduction in current discrepancies. By contrast, the flow between these first two groups and the "developing" nations is significant in quantity only, but scant in quality, since it involves for the most part obsolete technologies (sometimes with insurmountable difficulties in terms of subsequent maintenance and availability of spare parts) which do not always meet the development needs of these regions. For example, there have been industrial initiatives in countries where it was then impossible to complete or to maintain facilities due to lack of raw materials, spare parts, professional personnel, or concrete ways to market the finished products.

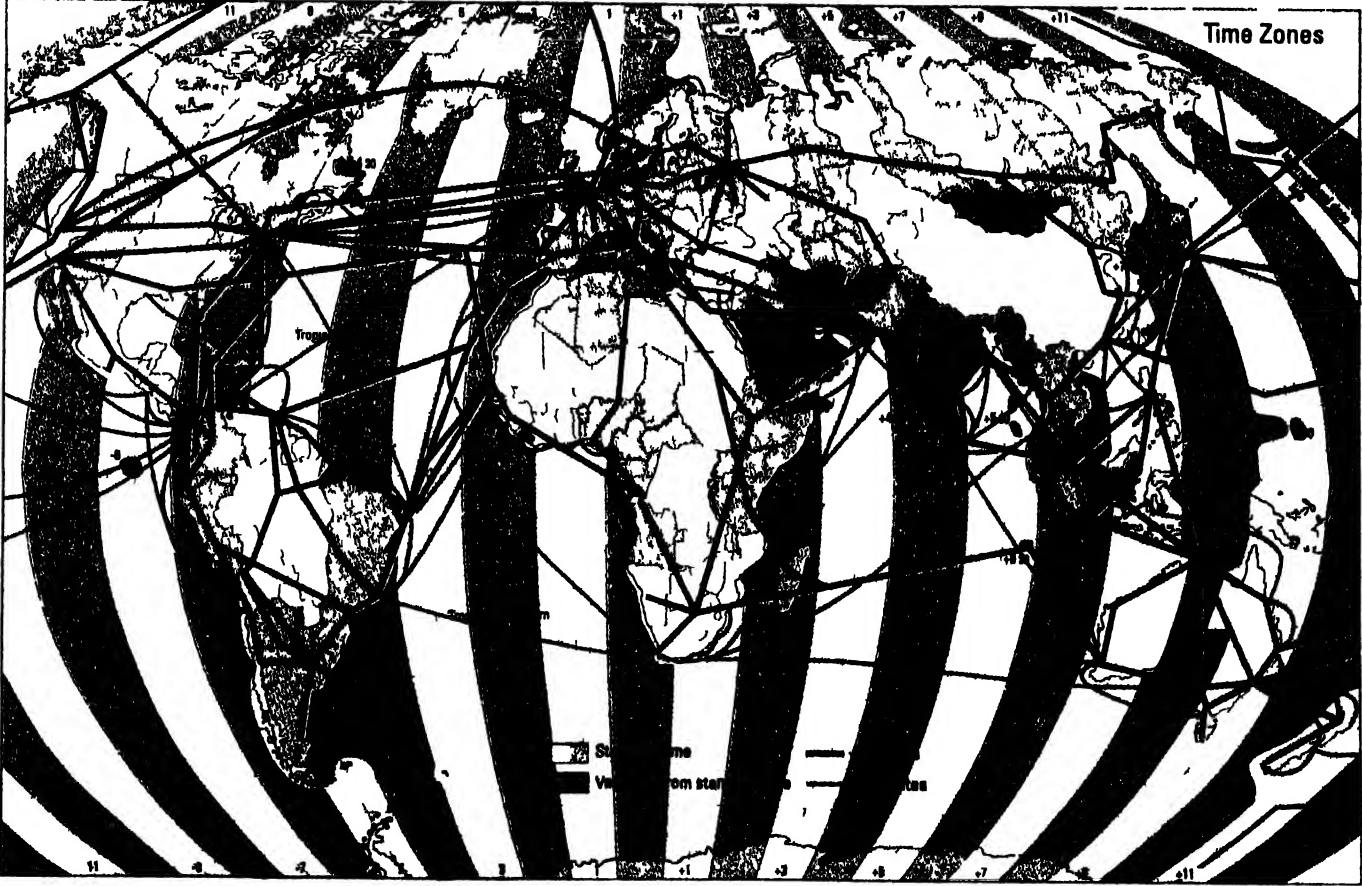
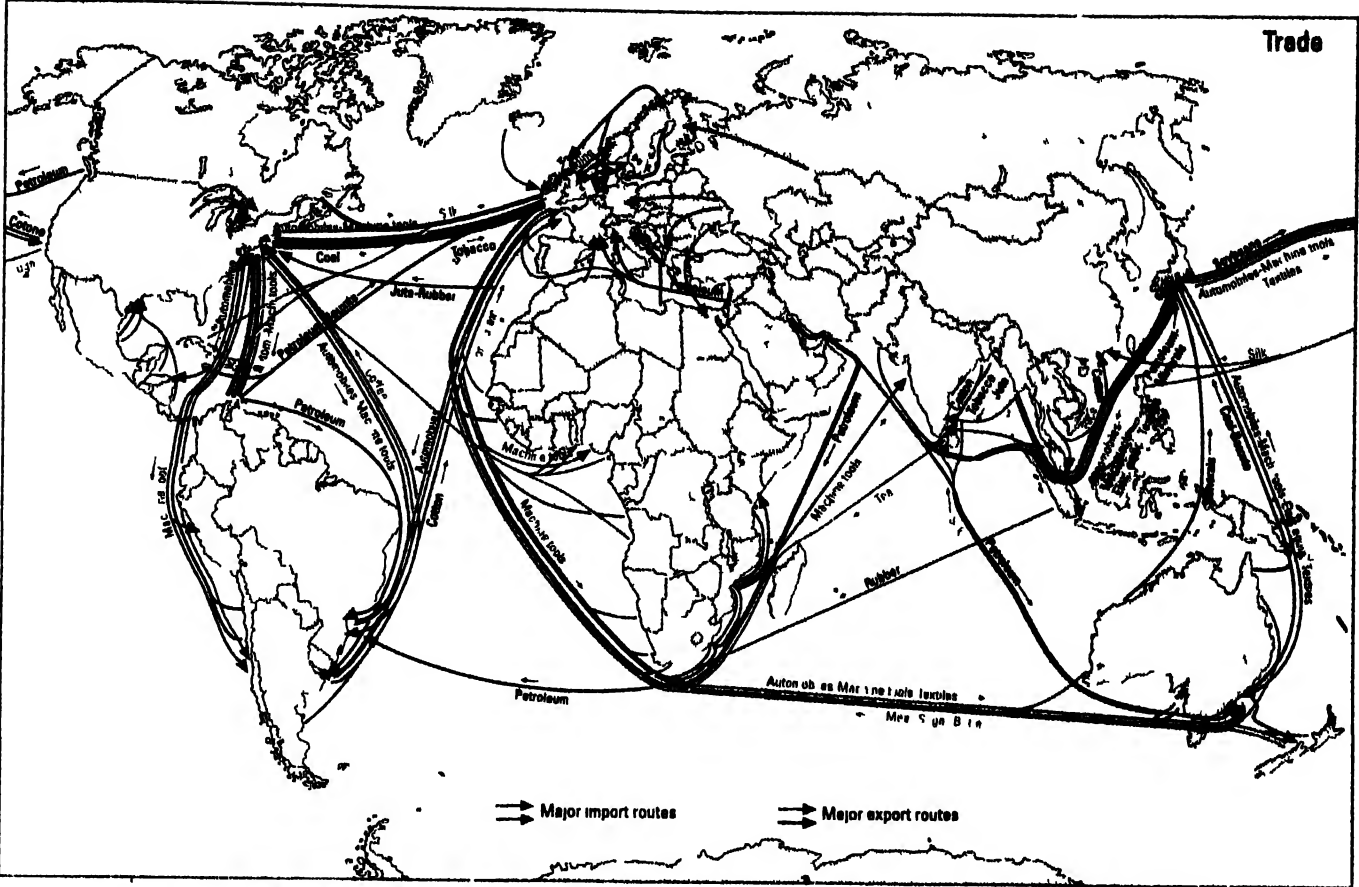
The example of China demonstrates how classification into different "worlds" is often theoretical and continually changing. China straddles the newly industrialized and Third World categories and for over a decade has shown growing openness toward more advanced economic models.

Norman J. G. Pounds, cited above, warns that the imbalance between developed and underdeveloped nations is extremely risky in the long run:

*The improvement of the level of human welfare is a matter of deep concern not merely to those peoples whose standards are low but also to those with the highest. All parts of the world and all peoples are so closely interknit that the privileged and the underprivileged cannot live side by side without danger to the former. The highest national incomes per capita are based upon factory production, which is most successful when it is carried out on a massive scale. The developed countries need markets, which the peoples of the developing world could supply if their purchasing power were increased. The imperialisms of the nineteenth century were to some degree attempts to use the purchasing power of the dependent territories in the service of the industries of the imperial powers. But the imperialists' policy of using the purchasing power of colonies to absorb their own industrial surpluses tended, in general, to stereotype a pattern of industrial countries on the one hand and of agricultural and primary producers on the other. Such an international division of functions and responsibilities is dangerous. In times of slump or depression, the prices of agricultural and primary goods drop more sharply than those of manufactured goods, with social consequences that may be serious in the extreme.*

**Recycling of garbage and industrial waste.** What was for the most part considered "waste" in the past and was therefore simply thrown away or destroyed assumes increasing significance within the context of safeguarding the environment, as well as in terms of depleting available resources. Driven by these needs and their recognized economic validity, numerous activities have arisen in recent years that focus on the reuse of so-called "secondary materials," which include residues from the processing of raw materials and semifinished products (industrial waste, recovery of oils and lubricants, and the like), as well as solid household waste (paper, cardboard, glass, cans, and even certain plastics). This is a totality of resources that in their turn can serve as a supply for the process of industrial transformation (it is estimated, for example, that over 30% of







metallurgical and machine production today is obtained through the use of metal scrap) or in certain cases can produce thermoelectric energy, fertilizers, and more. This demonstrates a new consciousness and the proper collective reaction of humanity to the indiscriminate consumerism that has accompanied the enhanced well-being of recent decades. The collection and recycling of "secondary materials" clearly will constitute an increasingly significant economic aspect of the future.

**Communications, trade, and commerce.** We are experiencing a constantly increasing "globalization" of markets, meaning the integration, both territorial and functional, of existing trade relationships among individual nations that differ in more than merely economic terms. This expansion of borders (political, cultural, economic, and social) is facilitated first and foremost by the developments in communications and a renewed necessity for "dialogue" among peoples. On the other hand, there are also certain tendencies that accentuate local differences (a demand for greater local autonomy, the aspiration of various countries to greater self-determination in economic policies, and so on) and lead to the implementation of forms of protectionism (the erection of trade and tariff barriers), which no longer makes sense in a world that should seek to better integrate available resources in order to achieve the harmonious development of the various economies and the gradual elimination of existing imbalances.

The technological innovations that have characterized recent decades have radically transformed the entire communications and transportation systems and further reduced existing distances between countries. The use of telecommunications satellites, new radio and telephone systems, fiber optics, and cable communications systems, as well as the development of telecommunications networks, have made it possible for the transmission of images, sounds, and data to become an everyday reality, with further advances expected and now considered a primary component in the process of cultural and economic development. Innovations in the field of transportation of people and goods have influenced both the means employed (ships, airplanes, highways, and railroads) and their management. There has been an attempt to increasingly optimize the supply of services, with a search for the most satisfactory balance among the demands for speed (transportation time), quantity (of people or goods to be transported), and convenience (costs). With regard to maritime transportation (the overall gross tonnage of the merchant marine worldwide has increased from 130 million metric t in 1960 to over 424 million in 1990), the most significant innovations have been seen in the construction and use of supertankers, container or multipurpose ships, and so-called "roll-on, roll-off" ships, as well as in the expansion of port infrastructures (systems for loading and unloading as well as for the storing and sorting of merchandise). Some commercial ports (Rotterdam, Antwerp, Hamburg, Chiba-Tokyo, Yokohama, Singapore, and others), in part as a result of the use of highly advanced equipment (such as robotized movement of containers), take on the appearance of true technological cities. Air transport has also benefited from continual improvements in aeronautics and aerospace technologies, which have become particularly necessary to facilitate communications between distant or remote regions (for example, linking major locations in

South America) or to transport urgent or perishable goods (such as medicines or spare parts). Highway transport has also assumed increasing significance, both in terms of commercial (passengers) and industrial (goods) usage, with a corollary broad development in highway and superhighway networks. It was recently estimated that there were 561 million automotive vehicles on the road in 1989 (in 1960 the number was only 135 million). Railroads, with a worldwide network of approximately 772,000 mi [1,245,000 km] have experienced a modest reduction compared to the past (in 1960 there were 778,800 mi [1,256,000 km]), due in part to competition from air and highway transport, and have reflected some territorial imbalances, infrastructure decay and construction delays that in some cases have slowed general development. While many important cities have seen the creation of advanced urban transportation systems (monorails and subways), numerous extraurban railways are showing signs of obsolescence or inadequacy, often making them difficult or uneconomical to use. The regions most affected by these lags in progress are Latin America, Africa, and central Asia, where, among other factors, differences in track gauge prevent the integration of rail systems.

# GENERAL GEOGRAPHY

## Images



1. The M33 spiral galaxy. Looking like whitish spots of various sizes, galaxies are aggregations of stellar material and interstellar gas scattered throughout the universe, and are similar in structure and configuration to the Milky Way, the galaxy which includes our own Sun and its planetary system. Most galaxies visible through telescopes look like flattened disks with spiral arms extending outward around a central core.

2. The 3C273 quasar, in an image obtained in the x-ray spectrum. A quasar (the name is a contraction of "quasi-stellar radio source") is an extremely bright celestial body that emits quantities of energy equivalent to those of a galaxy but, as its name indicates, has dimensions similar to a star. Quasars were discovered in 1963, and research has not yet clearly defined their physical nature.

3. The Earth as seen from the lunar surface, in a photograph taken from Apollo 8. The Moon, the Earth's only natural satellite, emits no light of its own; it is made up of solid material with a surface consisting of hundreds of craters of volcanic and meteoritic origin, as well as large flat areas called "maria" (seas), visible from Earth as

light-colored patches separated by dark patches erroneously referred to as continents. The absence of water and an atmosphere, together with extreme temperature swings (from  $-220^{\circ}$  to  $300^{\circ}\text{F}$  [ $-140^{\circ}$  to  $150^{\circ}\text{C}$ ], excludes any possibility of life.

4. A lunar eclipse over the dark waters of the Pacific. This phenomenon occurs when the Earth comes between the Sun and the Moon, aligning with them along a "nodal" line. Lunar eclipses can be penumbral, partial, or total, depending on how much of the moon falls within the conical shadow cast by the Earth that blocks light from the Sun. Given the period with which the Moon revolves around the Earth, a lunar eclipse is generally followed or preceded by a solar eclipse at an interval of about two weeks.

5. Total solar eclipse. This phenomenon is caused by the presence of the Moon directly between the Sun and the Earth. Because the Sun is so large and the Moon's shadow cone is of limited size, total eclipses of the Sun, which occur when the Moon (at perigee, the point at which it is nearest the Earth) crosses one of the nodes during a new Moon, are visible only along a fairly small strip of the Earth's

surface. Annular eclipses occur when the Moon crosses a node and is at its greatest distance from Earth (apogee).

6. The Earth, photographed from Apollo 8 in 1968. Visible beneath the cloud formations are the expanses of the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, with the Americas between them. With geostationary satellites, it is now possible to make numerous geodetic observations that provide a more accurate picture of the real dimensions and shape of the Earth.

7. The midnight Sun over Malmesfjord in Norway, at Langøya island in the Vesterålen group north of the Lofotens (latitude  $68^{\circ} 45' \text{N}$ ). Above the Arctic Circle ( $66^{\circ} 23' \text{N}$ ) the Sun remains visible day and night during the period between the vernal equinox (March 21) and autumnal equinox (September 23), in an area that narrows gradually from the Arctic Circle to the North Pole. The longest period of daylight occurs at the summer solstice (June 21), when at midnight the Sun just touches the horizon at the Arctic Circle and rises to an angle of  $23^{\circ} 27'$  above the horizon at the Pole ( $90^{\circ} \text{N}$ ). The same situation occurs at the South Pole, but at the opposite seasons.

8. The world's first modern map, published by Abraham Ortelius (1570) and now in the collection of the University of Zürich library. Since antiquity humans have faced the problem of depicting the Earth's surface. Its spherical nature, already postulated by Eratosthenes some 25 centuries ago, was the basis for Christopher Columbus' first voyage across the Atlantic. On Ortelius' map, note the indication of an Antarctic continent, which was believed to exist at that time but had never been sighted (*Terra australis nondum cognita*).

9. Satellite image of an urban area. The imaging system captures electromagnetic waves reflected from various points on the Earth's surface using sensors located inside suitably equipped artificial satellites that move in defined orbits around the Earth, generally at altitudes exceeding 500 mi [800 km]. The electromagnetic radiation captured by the satellites is in turn sent back to Earth, where it is recorded by special radar installations and then analyzed by specialized computers that convert it into tiny images (pixels) each representing a portion of the Earth's surface between 1000 and 10,000  $\text{ft}^2$  [100–1000  $\text{m}^2$ ] in size. When these pixels merge into a larger depiction

they then form images which simulate the appearance of a true photograph.

10. The Hex river valley in South Africa, about 60 mi [100 km] north of Cape Town, interrupts the continuity of the Langeberg range before flowing into the Breë river, which in turn flows into the Indian Ocean. The subtropical climate at these latitudes (about 33–34° S) and the availability of moderate precipitation have promoted river erosion and subsequent sedimentation in the valleys, which now support intensive agricultural activity associated, as in this case, with a large but dispersed population. The main communications route between Cape Town and the country's interior also passes through the Hex river valley.

11. The Manang river valley in Nepal. The southern slopes of the Himalayas, intensely watered by precipitation brought in by the monsoons in summer (approximately 80 in. [2000 mm] on average), exhibit a dense network of valleys that are still being shaped by the river erosion that has widened and deepened them. In their lower courses, these valleys have been filled with sediment by these same rivers as they drop their loads of detritus, forming a flat valley bottom that is particularly suitable for cultivation and settlement.

12. The Mont Blanc massif, seen from the Veny valley. This environment is dominated by glacial erosion and deposition. The current phase, in which most Alpine glaciers are retreating, has left fresh (that is, unaltered) moraine deposits even in the Val d'Aosta, consisting of sand and pebbles. On the steepest slopes, note the development of a conifer forest, the upper limit of which is less than 6500 ft [2000 m] above sea level.

13. The village of Gibellina, in western Sicily, which was destroyed by the earthquake of 1968. Earthquakes are the result of vibrations (seismic

waves) produced by a sudden release of energy at a certain point within the Earth's crust, at a depth of no more than a few dozen miles. This release is actually the resolution of particular states of tension: fracturing of a rock body subjected to powerful dynamic stress, or resumption of activity in an earlier fault with movement of its sectors. At the Earth's surface, seismic waves can produce both vertical and horizontal oscillations, and their velocity, both within and outside the crust, seems to be closely linked to the types of rock through which they pass.

14. Spectacular view of the San Andreas fault, one of the largest fractures in the Earth's crust, located on the western edge of California's Central Valley. This important tectonic boundary is part of a band of other faults present in the contact zone between two great crustal plates, the Pacific and the North American. It is an active fault and therefore a frequent site of intense seismic phenomena, and is constantly monitored: two large population centers—San Francisco and Los Angeles—are located at its ends.

15. Night view of Mt. Etna erupting from its central crater, hurling out lava and incandescent ash. Etna, the largest active volcano in Europe, is also one of the most intensively studied, and because it is continuously active is in fact one of the least dangerous, although in the past its lava flows have extended to some coastal villages and even as far as Catania. Its output consists predominantly of extremely fluid basaltic material, which often emerges from side vents.

16. Sulfur crystals in a bitumen matrix, from the Sicilian sulfur deposits. Each crystal is about an inch [3 cm] long. Sulfur is very common in nature, both as a free element (in evaporite sedimentary deposits or near oil fields) and combined into minerals, such as sulfides and sulfates. In solfataras (the last stage of a

volcano's activity), sulfur is formed at high temperature due to sublimation of sulfuric acid.

17. Bicolored tourmaline crystals from the Cruzeiro mine at São José de Safira in Brazil (each crystal measures about 2 × 1 in. [6 × 2.5 cm]). Tourmaline is a complex silicate of aluminum and boron that is found mostly in metamorphic intrusive igneous rocks. It normally occurs as trigonal prismatic crystals in various colors from blue to green to pink, depending on composition.

18–19. Sections of rocks seen through the microscope. Igneous rocks—those derived from solidification of a magma—can form within the Earth's crust, in which case they are called "intrusive," or outside on the Earth's surface following a volcanic eruption, where they are called "extrusive" or "effusive." Highly crystalline intrusive rocks include granite (first photo), syenite, and gabbro. Effusive rocks include porphyry, trachyte, and basalt; the latter has a low silica content and is therefore basic (second photo).

20–21. Sections of rocks seen through the microscope. Metamorphic rocks are the result of chemical and physical transformation of either igneous or sedimentary rocks due to high pressure and temperature, including contact with magma bodies themselves. These rocks are identified by their schistose appearance and the presence of crystals. They include gneiss (first photo), mica schists, and marble, the latter created by the metamorphosis of limestone (second photo).

22. Alternating layers of limestone and marl in a stratified outcropping in the Alpine foothills of Lombardy (northern Italy). Both are sedimentary rocks, the former made up mostly of calcium carbonate and the latter of a mixture of limestone and clay. Both are deep-sea deposits and are

often rich in microfossils, such as Foraminifera, single-celled organisms that live in the open ocean. In the photograph, the strata appear slightly tilted due to a tectonic dislocation that has changed their original horizontal orientation.

23. Fossil imprint of a trilobite, an organism belonging to the arthropod class. A species typical of the marine environment, trilobites lived throughout the Paleozoic era (from the Cambrian to the Permian). Their bodies were divided lengthwise into three lobes. Excellent index fossils, trilobites were already highly differentiated by the beginning of the Cambrian, but became most widespread between the end of the Cambrian and the Ordovician.

24. Specimen of a fossil plant, *Latanites praticensis*, now in the museum at Bolca in the Monti Lessini region of Italy. This species of palm lived in the early Cenozoic (Eocene–Oligocene) and became incorporated into the limestone deposits of the hills around Verona, which originally formed in a near-shore environment (probably a lagoon or lake) characterized by a generally tropical climate.

25. Specimen of a fossil fish, *Vomeropsis triurus*, from the collection of the museum at Bolca near Verona in Italy, recovered from marine sedimentary deposits in the foothills of the Lessini Mountains, dating from the first half of the Cenozoic (Eocene and Oligocene). Bolca has one of the richest deposits of fossil fish from this period, first discovered in the 16th century.

26. Ammonites, fossil mollusks belonging to the cephalopod class, lived from the Devonian period of the Paleozoic era (400 million years ago) until the end of the Cretaceous (65 million years ago), and were widely distributed. Living cephalopods include species of the genus *Nautilus*, which wander the tropical Pacific

Ocean, housed in an elegant shell.

27. False-color image of a full circle of the aurora borealis, recorded from space by the Dynamics Explorer satellite on September 15, 1981. The auroral ring completely surrounds the North Pole. The lighter area corresponds to the part of the Earth directly illuminated by the Sun. The "Northern Lights" are a phenomenon that occurs in the night sky at high latitudes, forming rays, bands, arcs, and curtains that are often red or green; they are caused by interaction between subatomic particles ejected by the Sun (components of the "solar wind") and oxygen atoms and nitrogen molecules in the upper atmosphere.

28. A fog-shrouded landscape seen from Mt. Shasta in northern California. Fog is a stratified formation produced by condensation of the water vapor present in the lower atmosphere, particularly at ground level. It consists of tiny droplets of water. Conditions favorable to the formation of fog include the presence of condensation nuclei (atmospheric dust, industrial fumes, etc.) and cooling of the air as soon as it has taken up moisture due to the water contained in the top layers of the soil evaporating, which in turn is promoted by direct sunlight.

29. A cloudscape at sea. Clouds are masses of tiny particles of water or ice suspended in the atmosphere, and represent the direct result of condensation or sublimation of water vapor following cooling of a moist air mass in contact with a colder air mass, or as a result of rising toward colder layers of the atmosphere. When the water or ice particles become so large that they can no longer be supported by the air, they fall as precipitation, either liquid (rain) or solid (snow and hail).

30. A low-pressure area over northwestern Europe, in a false-color image taken by the NOAA-9 satellite on August 6,

1987. The image clearly shows a large cloud system, with its characteristic spiral shape, covering the British Isles and the northwest corners of France and Portugal. Bands of clouds also cover Norway, southern Italy, Sicily, Greece, and northern Africa. The entire cloud system is rotating counterclockwise and moving from west to east.

31. A view of the sea floor with benthic fauna in a neritic environment (such as corals) which remains attached to the bottom and generally lives at moderate depths, often in association with plant species (algae). These life forms need abundant light in order to survive.

32. Victoria Falls on the Zambezi river, at the border between Zambia and Zimbabwe. This majestic and picturesque shelf of rock is about 400 ft [120 m] high. A sudden change in the slope of a watercourse is generally due, as in this case, to the presence of a fault breaking the continuity of the rocky substrate over which the water flows. This situation is quite frequent in regions with a tabular structure such as southern Africa.

33. Ullswater, in the Lake District of northwestern England, has an elongated shape like many other lakes in Cumberland, since it occupies the bottom of an ancient valley shaped by Pleistocene glaciation (first part of the Quaternary era). During this period the glaciers fanned out from the central mountain of the region, Mt. Helvellyn, which at present is only 3100 ft [950 m] high.

34. Muldrow glacier, which descends from Mt. Brooks (11,936 ft [3639 m]) in the McKinley group in Denali National Park (Alaska). Meltwater from this glacier, which runs down toward the plains west of Fairbanks, flows into the Yukon river.

35. Sand dunes on Playa de los Ingles, in the southern part of Gran Canaria island in the

eastern Atlantic, with their characteristic golden tinge. These dunes are typical accumulations of sand formed by the action of wind on very fine material, either discharged into the sea by rivers or derived from incessant pulverization of rocky detritus by wave action along the shore.

36. Vertical walls cut into the limestone sediments of Gris Nez west of Calais in northern France, where the Artois hills meet the sea. Such cliffs are the result of erosion by the sea against a high, rocky coast, into which it carves a notch at the base. As the notch gets larger, the cliffs above collapse, causing the coastline to retreat inland.

37. A landslide along the coast of California has completely severed a road. Landslides can occur in almost any kind of terrain for a wide variety of both endogenous and exogenous reasons. Factors involved include precipitation, seismic movements (as in this case), and excessive deformation of slopes.

38. Stalactites and stalagmites in the famous Altamira caves of northern Spain, known for their prehistoric rock paintings. Formed as rainwater dissolves limestone or gypsum formations, underground caves generally contain these particular kinds of concretions (stalactites hanging from the roof, stalagmites on the ground), made of calcium carbonate which precipitates in crystalline form due to constant dripping of the water.

39. These typical marine erosion landforms are known as the Twelve Apostles, towering pillars just offshore from a high, rocky stretch of the southern Australian coast. The action of ocean waves produces intensive mechanical wear (abrasion) on coastlines, producing a wide variety of morphologies including monoliths and different types of caves.

40. Tropical mountain forest growing on the flanks of

Mt. Ruwenzori, a great igneous mountain at the border between Zaire and Uganda (equatorial Africa), where the humidity is high and the temperature changes with altitude. In contrast to the typical low-elevation equatorial forest, this results in a gradual decrease in the size of individual trees and an increase in epiphytic species, as the picture clearly shows.

41. Giraffes and zebras in the Masai Amboseli Game Reserve in Kenya (equatorial Africa). The environment in which the large African animals live and flourish consists principally of savanna, an open plant community of tall grasses generally accompanied by scattered shrubs and isolated trees (acacias and baobabs). Most of the grass cover is made up of Gramineae species.

42. Sand dunes in Death Valley, California. Deserts like the one shown here exist not only in tropical latitudes but also in temperate zones, wherever precipitation becomes extremely sparse (less than 10 in. [250 mm] annually). The accumulations of sand were created as wind stripped detrital material from rocks (corrosion) and then transported it (deflation).

43. A mixed broadleaf and conifer forest on King Mountain in the Canadian province of Ontario, containing white cedar, larch, sugar maple, and birch. This is the typical "Laurentian" forest that thrives in continental conditions with relatively abundant precipitation (more than 40 in. [1000 mm] per year), and soils consisting of river and glacial deposits.

44. A herd of bison grazing in a North American meadow in the Great Plains region, an environment with semi-continental characteristics and only moderate precipitation (less than 40 in. [1000 mm] per year). Once very widespread, the bison was almost wiped out by overhunting in the 19th century and is now

a protected species.

45. Reindeer in a typical sub-Arctic tundra landscape in the Finnmark region (northern Norway) near North Cape. The tundra, devoid of trees but with a rich flora of mosses and lichens, flowers only during the brief summer, since the subsoil is permanently frozen.

46. Polar landscape with a polar bear (Greenland). This environment, particularly hostile to human settlement because of its prohibitive temperatures, is nevertheless propitious for several animal species, protected by their thick fur and accumulations of subcutaneous fat; these include the polar bear, whose diet consists predominantly of fish and seals.

47. *Homo sapiens*, a creature characterized by an upright stature and enormous brain development, represents the last phase in the evolutionary process of the human species over millions of years. Recent discoveries of australopithecines document the evolution of the primates most like humans. They had already achieved a fairly erect stance that allowed them to use their hands for support and also to handle rudimentary weapons and tools. One of the most ancient australopithecines found is "Lucy," whose skeleton was discovered in 1974 in the Afar depression in the Hadar river basin of Ethiopia. Lucy is believed to be about 3 million years old, and to have lived in an open environment with an only partially carnivorous diet; she is assumed to have been female due to her pelvic anatomy, height (3 ft [1 m]) and weight (55 lb [25 kg]). Later evolutionary phases were *Homo habilis*, *Homo erectus*, and lastly *Homo sapiens*.

48. The paintings in the caves of Lascaux in France, dating from the Magdalenian period (11,000–15,000 years ago), depicting scenes of hunting and daily life, as well as natural motifs and other symbols that are not readily decipher-

able, demonstrate that humans of the upper Paleolithic had a system of beliefs and a way of life that was already highly developed, including the production of knives, spears, and other everyday utensils from bone, ivory, and horn, along with flint tools.

49. Some very interesting evidence about the evolution of human lifestyles between the 8th and 6th millennia B.C. is provided by the rock engravings at Cape di Ponte in Val Camonica, northern Italy, now protected by a nature park. The ancient inhabitants of this area, the *Comuni*, recorded in the rocks the transition from a hunting-based economy to one based on agriculture, with domesticated crops and animals: a radical change in relations between humans and nature, and among humans in society.

50. The culture that flourished in the Eolian Islands off northern Sicily in the middle Bronze Age (approximately 1400–1270 B.C.), referred to as the "Milazzo culture," is documented by the settlement and objects found at Panarea. The strategic location of this village and the finds recovered during excavations are evidence that commercial exchanges took place by sea with other Italic populations and with the Mediterranean as a whole, and indicate the advanced society that had been developed by the inhabitants of these islands.

51. The caves of Balzi Rossi near Ventimiglia, on the Mediterranean coast near the border between France and Italy, are located in cliffs above the sea and represent one of the most famous Paleolithic sites in Europe. Excavations have revealed tombs with human remains belonging to a prehistoric race with Negroid traits, called the "Grimaldi" people. Graffiti and numerous small female statuettes indicate a highly developed culture.

52. A group of Dutch girls at a traditional festival. The

amazing variety of physical traits among humans is the result of genetic selection mechanisms during the evolution of our species, as well as environmental factors. Geographic barriers (rivers, seas, mountains, or deserts), separating different ethnic groups for thousands of years, have promoted isolation.

53. The term "race" as applied to the human species is a difficult and controversial one, since there are no universally accepted scientific criteria. To facilitate research, however, humans are usually divided into groups based on morphological resemblances: skin color (dark, yellow, white), skull shape (brachycephalic, dolichocephalic, mesocephalic), eye color and shape, and so on. The Indians of Rajasthan, like the woman shown here, are assigned to the *Caucasoid* branch.

54. The human species is sometimes divided into four principal branches (*Negroid*, *Australoid*, *Mongoloid*, *Caucasoid*) and into several derivative races. The various groups are highly differentiated, especially among the populations of Asia and the Americas. This young Malay belongs to the *Mongoloid* branch.

55. Nigeria is the most densely populated nation in Africa, and its highly diverse population is divided into a number of groups—Ibo, Hausa, Yoruba, Fulbe, and others—which generally belong to the *Negroid* race, characterized primarily by dark brown or black skin color, curly black hair, dark eyes, and a slender body of variable stature.

56. The Berbers, like the girls shown in this photograph, are a group of *Caucasoid* peoples of northern Africa, of mixed autochthonous, European, and Asian descent. Except among the Tuaregs, nomadism is not very common among these groups, which consist for the most part of farmers or herders, living in the countries of the African Mediterranean

littoral and in the Sahel.

57. At the time of the European discovery of America, the *Amerinds* (a term commonly used to designate the innumerable populations of the New World) were relatively homogeneous in physical terms, with predominantly *Mongoloid* characteristics indicating their Asian origin. Specific traits varied based on the particular ethnic group. With the European conquest, however, decimation of the native populations, imposition of European culture, and miscegenation gradually modified the physical and cultural characteristics of these peoples. The original Indians, like the *Yanomami* of Brazil shown here, are now found only in the depths of the equatorial forests.

58. The Industrial Revolution of the 19th century rapidly and radically changed the world: the population increased, people migrated in unprecedented numbers from the countryside to the city, and living standards rose. The result was to disrupt centuries-old environmental and social equilibriums. The abnormal growth of urban centers (like London, where this photograph was taken), whose populations increased in a matter of decades from a few hundred thousand to several million, has created critical situations. Ecological anxiety, traffic, noise, pollution, environmental degradation, crime, and drugs are all urban ills.

59. Social unrest is being provoked, among other factors, by rapid economic development which tends to magnify social differences and create environmental problems. The phenomenon, which began with the expansion of the cities, was not given proper attention until social tensions and demographic problems exploded into obvious paradoxes. In developing countries in particular, as in this section of Calcutta, modern buildings are spreading out to envelop and finally destroy traditional structures.

60. Since antiquity, the desire to hold onto their achievements has led humans to invent communications codes to transmit acquired experience and pass it on to later generations. In more developed countries attendance at school, whether public or private, is mandatory up to a certain age, and schools use modern teaching tools and methods. The photograph shows a classroom in Great Britain.

61. A schoolroom in Nepal. In poor countries with underdeveloped economies, where the illiteracy rate is high, education of adults as well as children is of concern and the purpose and methods of teaching can be quite different from those in rich countries.

62. Mass being celebrated at Killarney in Ireland. The roots of human religious sentiment go back to the very dawn of civilization. Religious beliefs and ritual acts have in turn influenced artistic and literary expression, and the history and culture of the world's many peoples. The largest religious persuasion in the world is Catholicism, which originated at the time of Christ and has since spread throughout the world.

63. In the early part of the 16th century in Germany, a great popular protest movement against the decadence of the Catholic church and the corruption of its clergy gave rise to a genuine religious revolution, from which Protestantism arose. In the societies in which it took root, its principal forms—Lutheran, Calvinist, Anglican—have produced a change in outlook not only on religion, but also on society, economics, and politics, that has profoundly influenced the events of the last few centuries. The spare and frugal Protestant spirit is often reflected in the furnishing of its places of worship, like the one shown here.

64. A collective funeral in Moscow. The term "Orthodox church" generally refers to all

the Byzantine-rite Christian churches that split off from Rome in 1054 and are headed by the patriarch of Constantinople. The liturgy of the Orthodox church, celebrated in a variety of languages, is very lavish, with great importance given to chant, vestments, and sacred images (icons).

65. Since the Hellenistic period, the term "Jews" or "Hebrews" has been applied to the populations that occupied Palestine in the 2nd millennium B.C. and formed a national unit based on monotheistic religious tenets, unlike all the other peoples of that era who were polytheistic. Despite having been scattered throughout the world by religious and racial persecution, the Jews have remained united for thousands of years through their religion. The photograph shows the Wailing Wall in Jerusalem, 157 ft [48 m] long, a structure still regarded as holy by Jews who believe it was constructed of great monolithic blocks from the Temple of Solomon. On Saturdays and holidays believers come here to pray and to bemoan the fall of Jerusalem.

66. Islam, founded by Muhammad in the 7th century, touches every aspect of life, based on an absolute monotheism in which divine law dominates everything. There are two principal Islamic confessions: Sunni (the majority), which is centered in present-day Saudi Arabia, and Shiite, of which Iran is the greatest population center and driving force. Islam is widespread today in large parts of Asia and Africa. The photograph shows a scene from Friday prayers at the Sultan mosque in Singapore.

67. The doctrine of salvation preached by the Buddha (whose effigy can be seen in the background of this photograph of monks praying at a temple in Bangkok) and by his disciples starting in 486 B.C., in India and later throughout the East, has profoundly influenced art, culture, and

social systems in every country in which it has flourished. Buddhism's unique concept of existence as an uninterrupted chain of lives, and of human passions as a source of suffering, inevitably generates a tendency toward detachment from everything earthly. Salvation thus consists in "extinction" or "nirvana," which is achieved by following the Eightfold Path of righteousness.

68. The world's agricultural production is characterized by rigidly defined production cycles linked to soil and climate, and by a strong differentiation in cultivated lands. The economy of Sri Lanka, an island nation in the Indian Ocean southeast of India, is predominantly agricultural, based both on subsistence products such as rice, and on cash crops including tea, sugar cane, and rubber, grown for export. The photograph shows terraced rice paddies.

69. In the livestock business as in every other agricultural sector, increased productivity depends above all on technological and organizational innovations. Both can be achieved in large-scale operations, although they tend to squeeze out smaller businesses and drastically reduce employment, creating serious labor imbalances.

70. A textile dye works in Morocco. With the spread of industrialization, there has been a gradual decline in the production of goods, often of artistic value, resulting from manual labor or the use of simple machinery. Conversely, and in apparent contradiction, there has been an increasing interest in material culture expressed in the creation of museums dedicated to crafts, peasant life, fishing, and folk traditions. In more developed countries, there has also been a proliferation of crafts courses. Another contradiction exists in economic terms: in underdeveloped countries craft production is underpaid, yet it is extremely expensive in rich countries.

71. Rising demand for metallurgical products has led to intensive exploitation of ore deposits and has had a severe environmental impact, as demonstrated by this "open-pit" mine in South Africa where ores are extracted directly from the ground without underground tunnels to reach the metal-bearing veins. Particularly with the advent of new extraction technologies, mining activity has often changed the surrounding socioeconomic environment as well, with the creation of urban settlements for workers, construction of infrastructures, and a rise in living standards.

72. Oil wells in Texas. Especially in the first part of the 20th century, low cost and ease of extraction, use, and transportation have made oil one of the key factors in world development. Decelerating economic growth in industrialized countries, the problem of atmospheric pollution, and a search for alternative energy sources have nevertheless recently led to a decline in consumption and drilling; the resulting economic stresses have affected the entire world, ultimately having a negative effect on producing countries.

73. Modern technology, which is part of all industrial processing, is changing (and in some cases has already changed) both the quality and quantity of products coming to market, as well as the mentality of industrial workers and consumers. For example, a suit of clothes or bolt of cloth was once a precious, durable, and extremely costly item in terms of both production and acquisition; today, market competition is forcing producers to continuously update their product lines to meet consumers' needs and increase sales.

74. The automotive sector was one of the first industries to introduce both computers and robots into the production process. New production methods, which initially created great stresses for both individuals (because of psy-



chological difficulties) and the labor force as a whole (as numbers of employees decreased), are rapidly spreading throughout the world and into every industry, allowing increased production and a substantial decrease in product cost.

75. Computers are now a familiar feature in the workplace and in educational environments as well. In developed countries, information-processing equipment can also be acquired by the general public, at low cost and at ordinary retail outlets. The increasingly intimate linkage between computers and modern telecommunications systems is profoundly changing modern mentalities, with social, economic, and cultural repercussions whose effect is still difficult to assess.

76. Containers—large boxes constructed with internationally standardized dimensions and capable of transporting any kind of product—are now commonly used to facilitate cargo movement. This system simplifies all loading and unloading operations, transfer between transport means (train, truck, ship), and storage operations in rail, truck, or harbor warehousing facilities, like the one shown here. The advantages in terms of cost, practicality, and security are enormous.

77. A stretch of superhighway between Rome and Frosinone (Italy). The development of new communications systems and roads has profoundly changed the human landscape and economic structures over the centuries. Until a few decades ago, road routes were determined by the physical conditions of the terrain. Today, to handle enormous increases in traffic (primarily of motor vehicles), the communications system often affects the environment, modifying it for greater efficiency but often causing ecological damage.

78. The Japanese high-speed "Bullet Train" speeds past Mt. Fuji. Since 1825, when the

first 21-mi [34-km] line was opened in Scotland, railways have been one of the fundamental elements in development and socioeconomic transformation around the world. Today planners are designing and implementing ultra-high speed trains and lines to meet competition from air and road transportation.

79. The first passenger flights were made in the United States between 1912 and 1914, and in 1919 the world's first passenger airline, KLM in the Netherlands, began intercontinental connections. After World War II, commercial air transportation began to challenge the dominance of railways and ocean liners. Aviation developed steadily until 1974, when increased fuel prices compelled airline restructuring, a reduction in administrative expenses, and the construction of larger aircraft with lower operating costs.

80. Since 1957, when the Soviet Union's Sputnik became the first artificial satellite launched into outer space, the number of objects placed into orbit around the Earth for various purposes has multiplied enormously. Telecommunications satellites (like Leasat shown in the photograph, used by the Space Shuttle in 1985) provide links between ground stations, transmitting telephone calls, data, and images in real time all over the world. Other satellites observe meteorological conditions (Meteosat), Earth resources (Geosat), and many other phenomena relating to the environment and human life.

81. The trading floor of the Paris Bourse. As an organized public securities market, where shares are sold or purchased only by authorized agents (stockbrokers), a stock exchange allows a large volume of interchanges to be concentrated into a limited space and time. The oldest of the world's major stock exchanges is in Amsterdam (1608); the most recent, but now one of the most important, is Tokyo's (1878).

82. New forms of distribution developed concurrently with the growth of heavy industry, and indeed as another product of the capitalist economy. Beginning in the mid-19th century in Paris (the photograph shows the interior of the Galeries Lafayette), there developed a system of sales outlets—department stores—which optimized the time and expense involved in distributing and marketing goods.

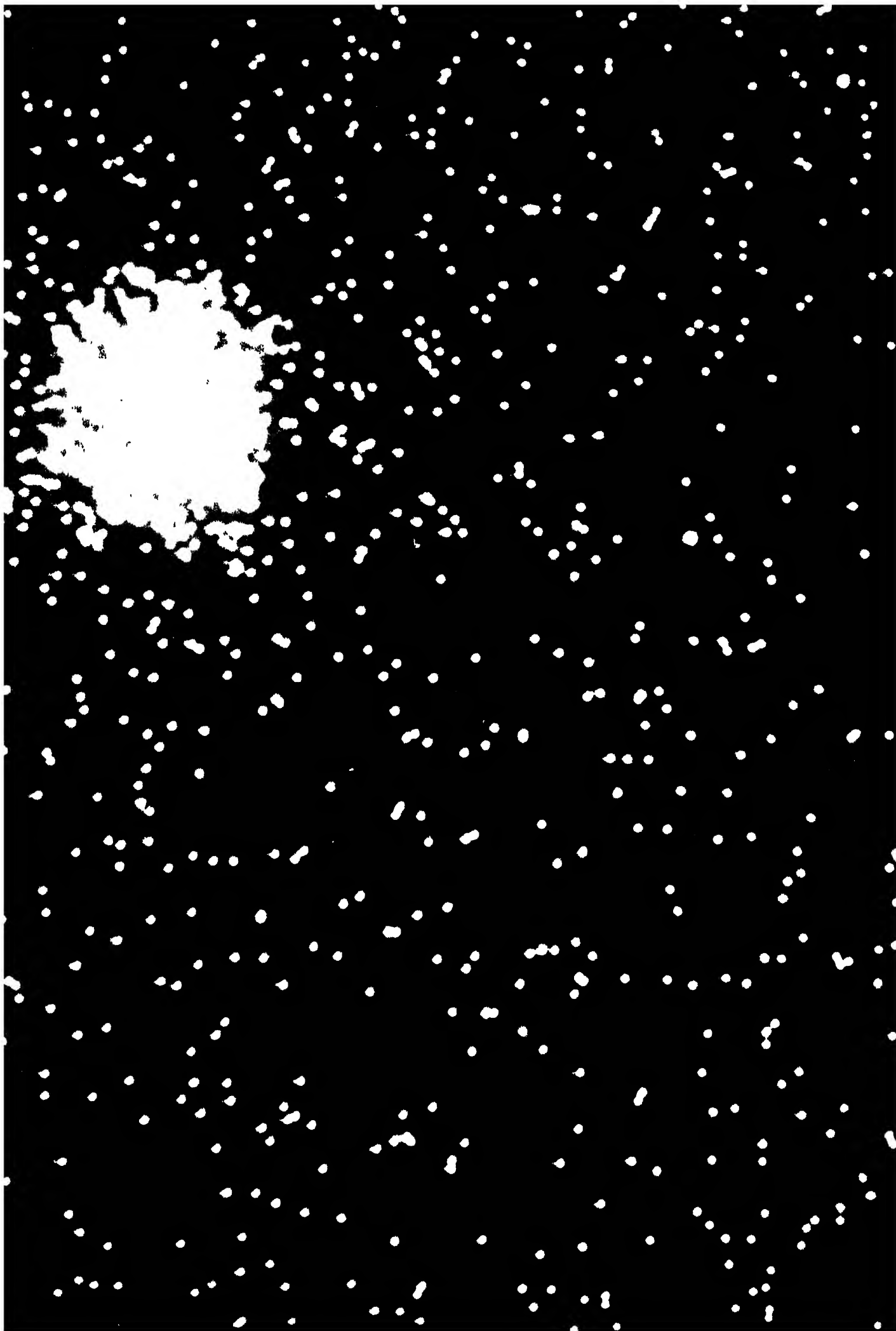
83. The Industrial Revolution also changed the concept of eating, elevating the common dining room to a privileged social position as a meeting place for both business transactions and leisure time. The most recent development, "fast food"—more economical, more in step with the frenetic pace of the industrialized world, and more accessible to the general public—has produced a true revolution in social and eating habits, especially in the large cities of the developed world.

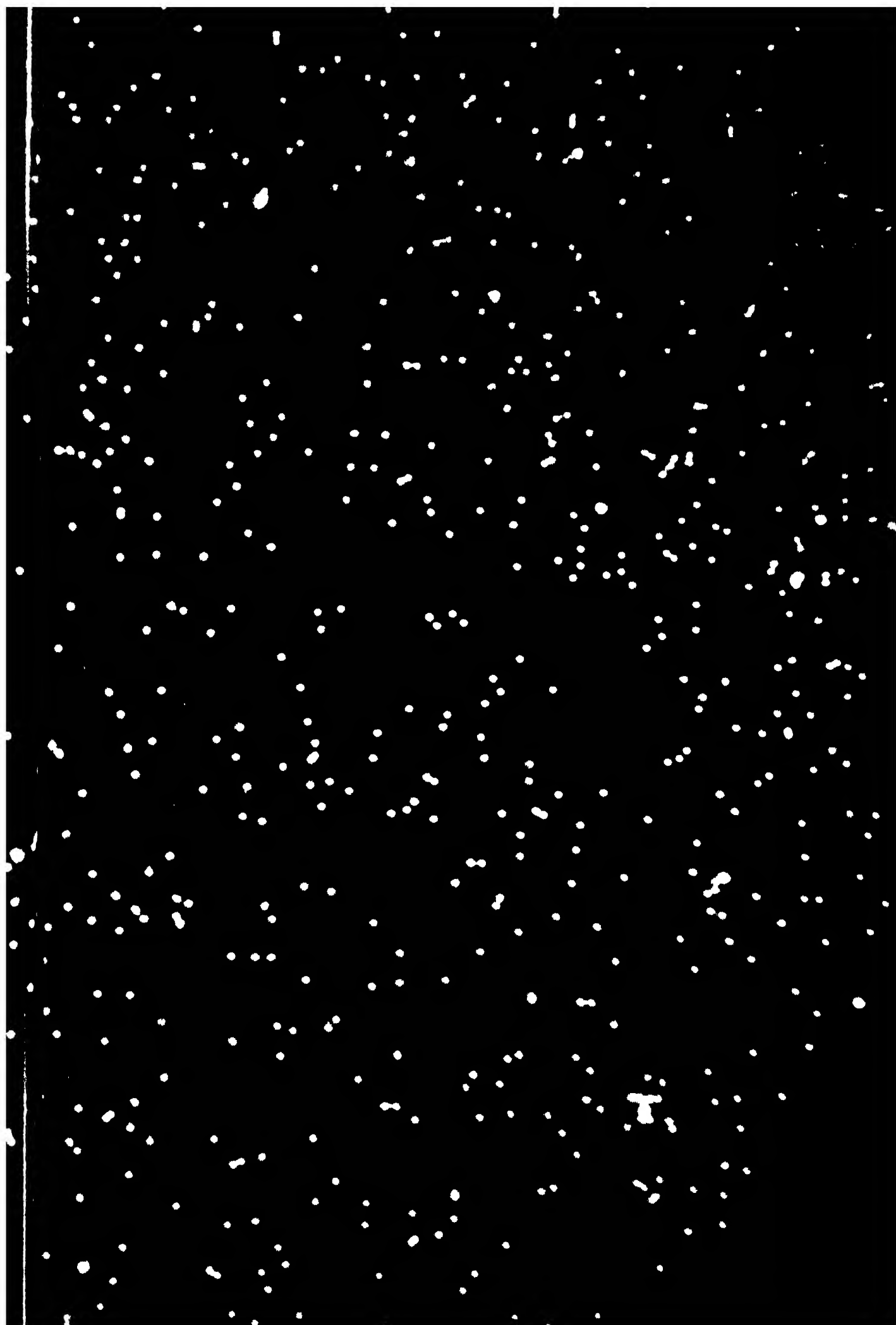
84. "Garbage gulls" at a landfill. The consumer civilization inevitably brings with it the problem of disposing of the solid and liquid wastes produced by industry, agriculture, cities, and households—a problem that is still far from solved and is becoming increasingly acute. Even when recyclable materials such as glass, steel, and paper have been separated out, refuse dumps are not only reservoirs of infection, but also sources of solid and inert wastes. If burned, they generate combustion fumes containing highly toxic pollutant gases.

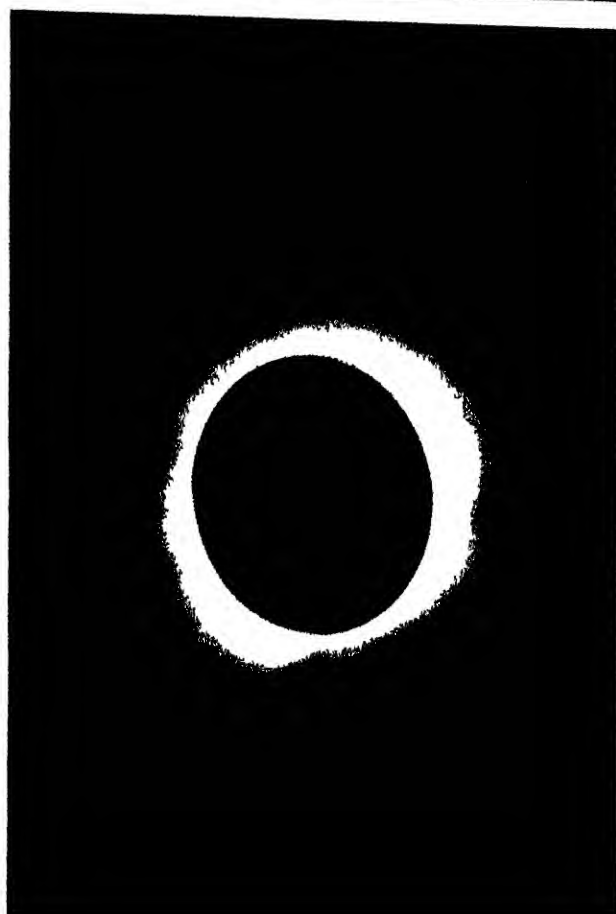
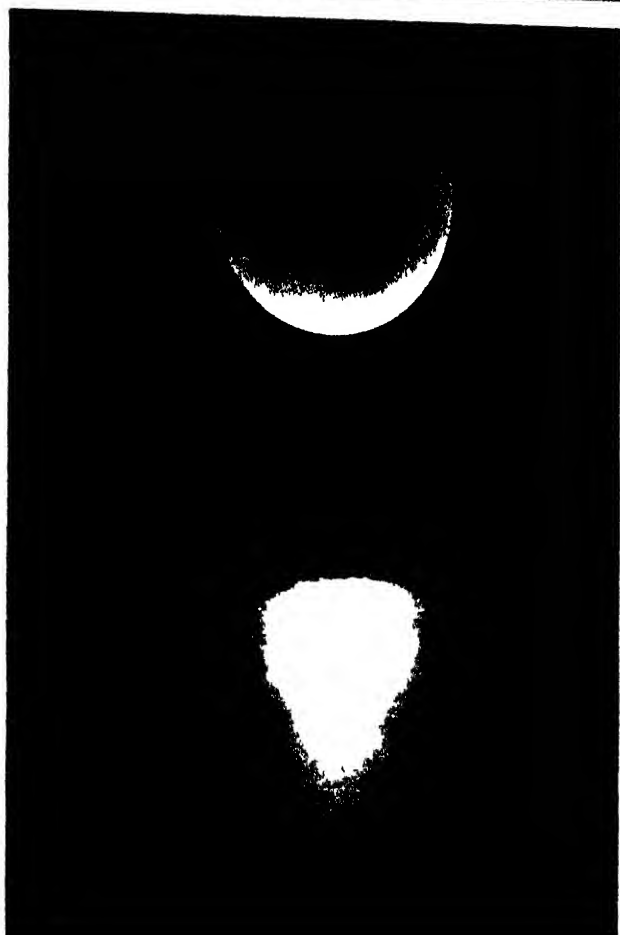
85. Despite legal requirements, industrial processes often produce wastes containing highly polluting substances. These have occasionally resulted in pollution events like the recent spill into the Rhine, with dramatic effects on large and densely populated areas. The photograph shows industrial wastes discharged from a chemical factory in England.

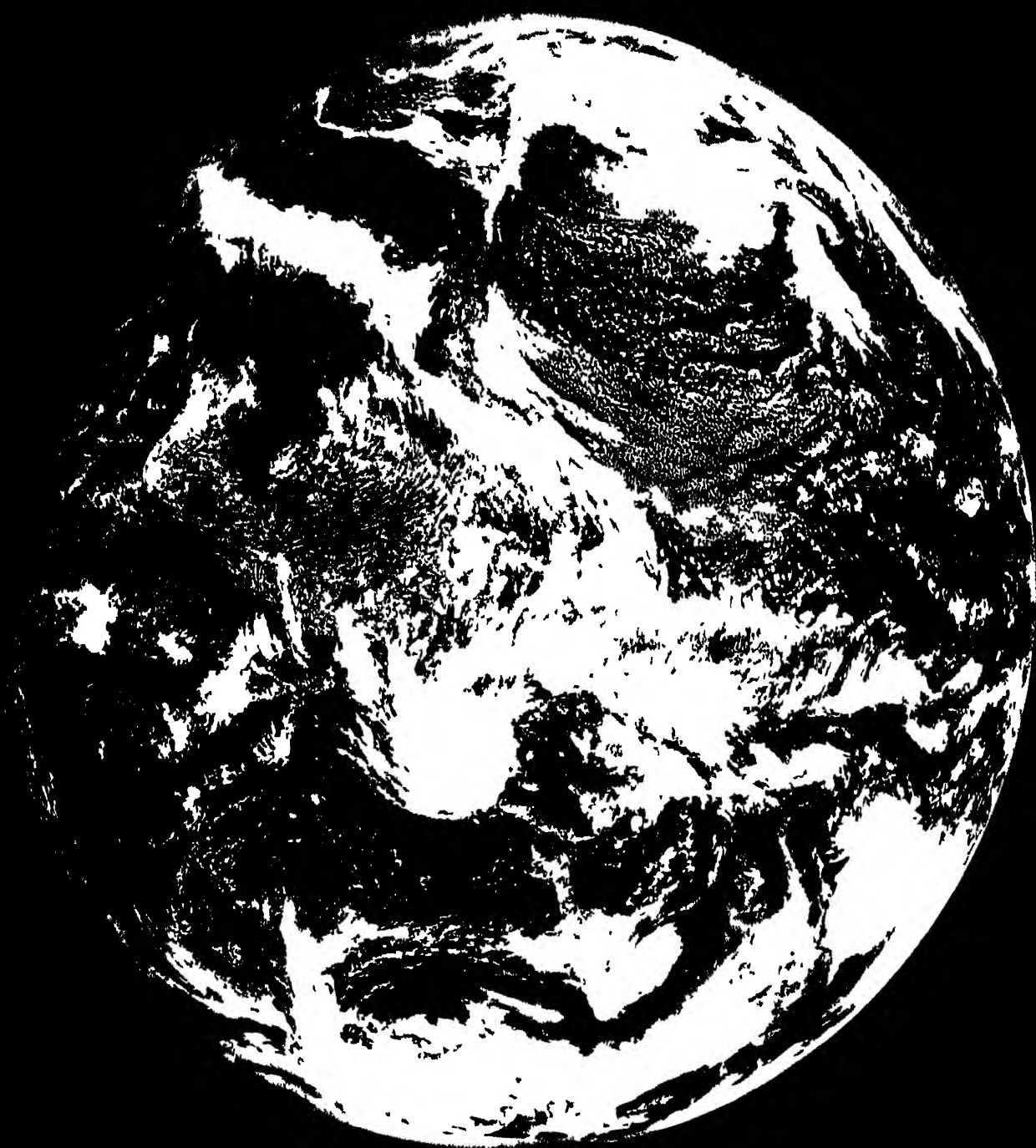
## *The Planet*





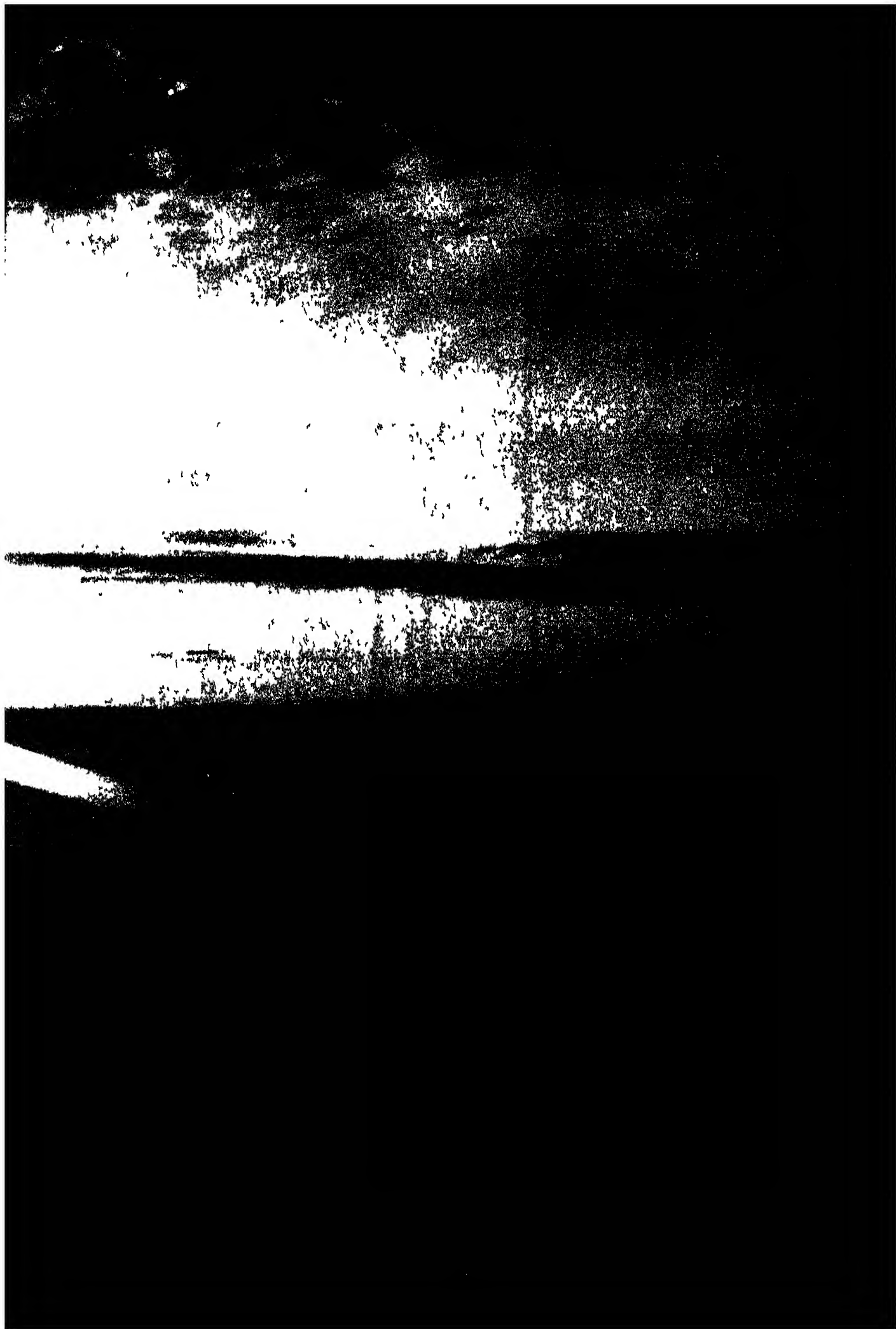






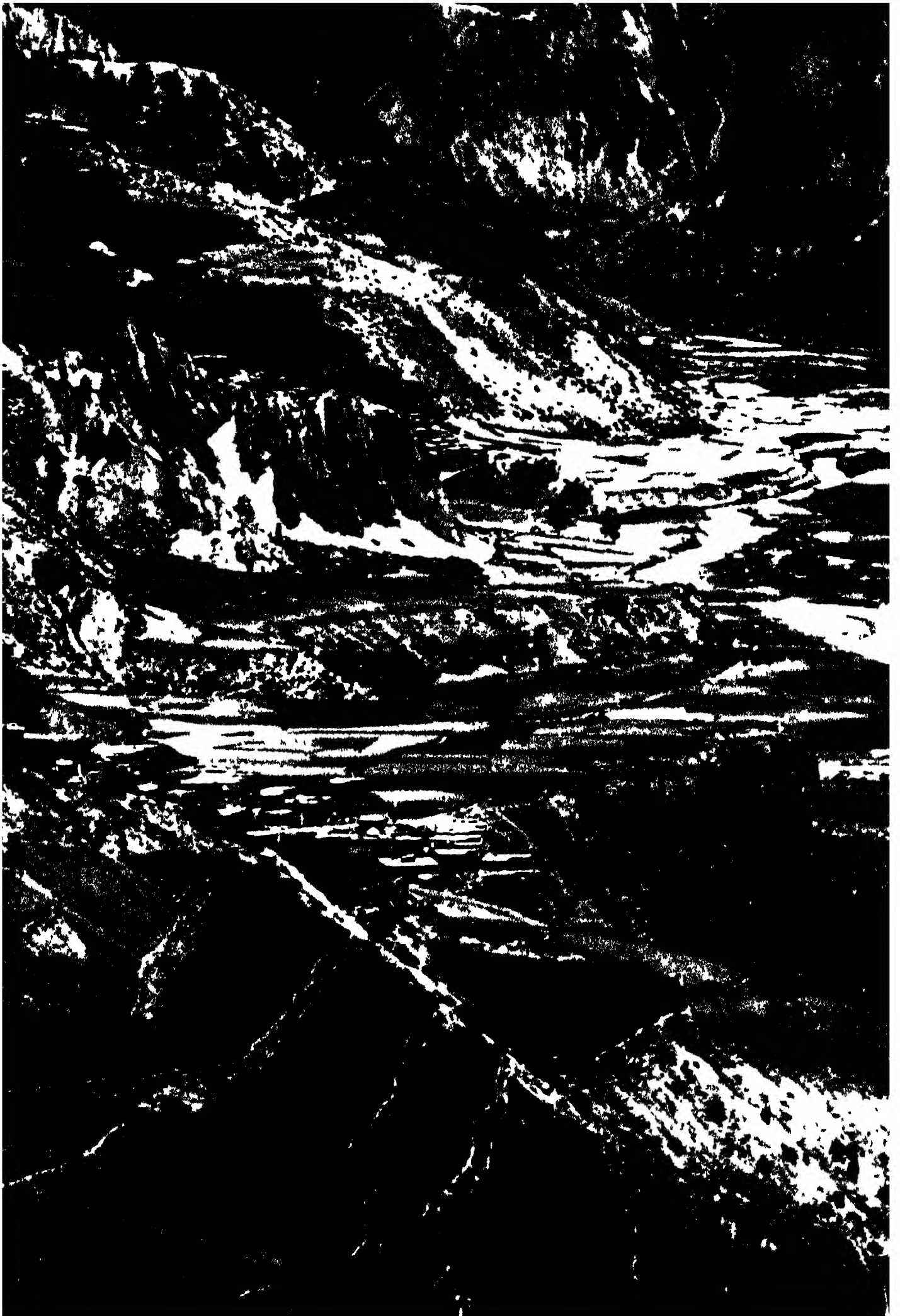










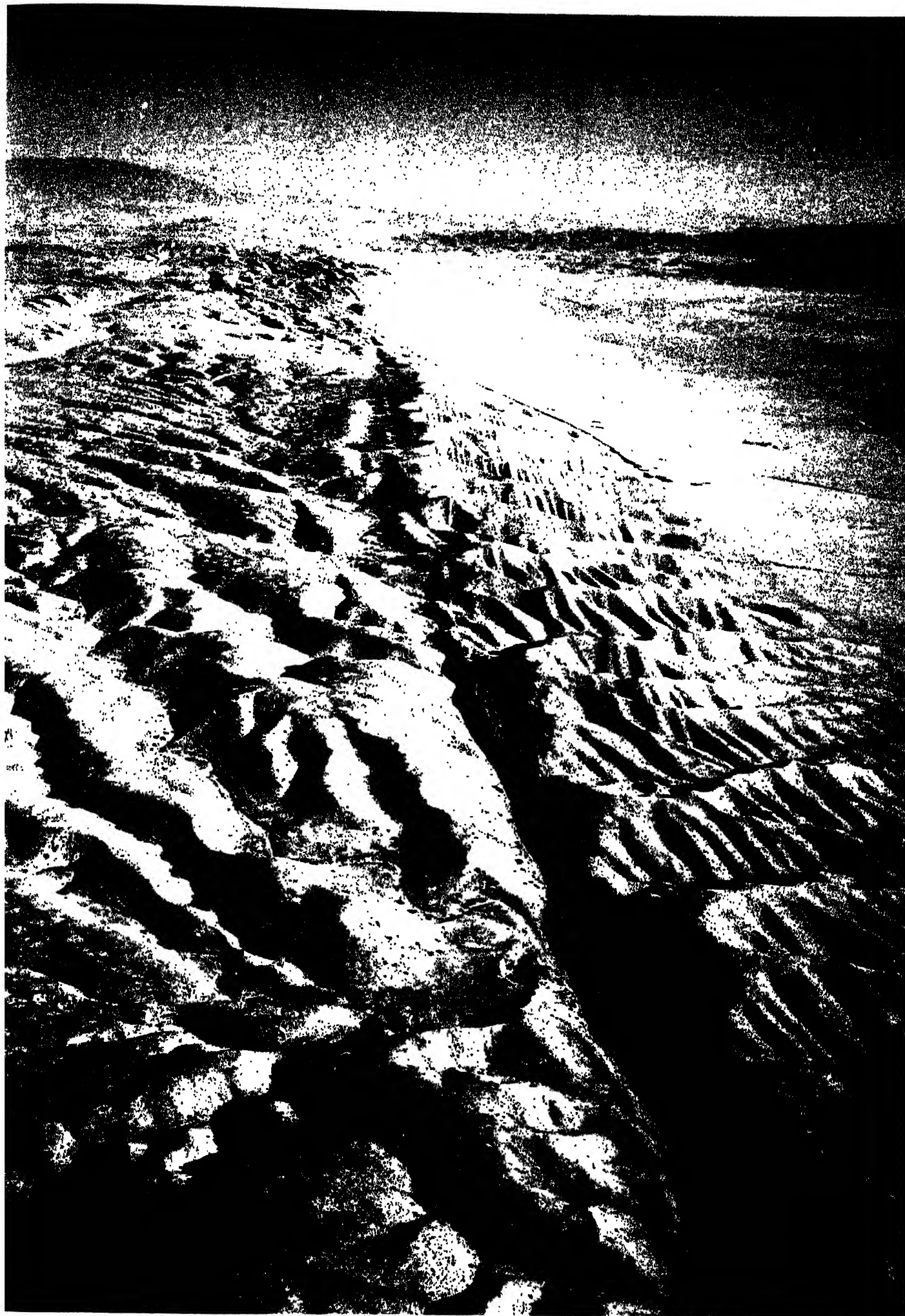


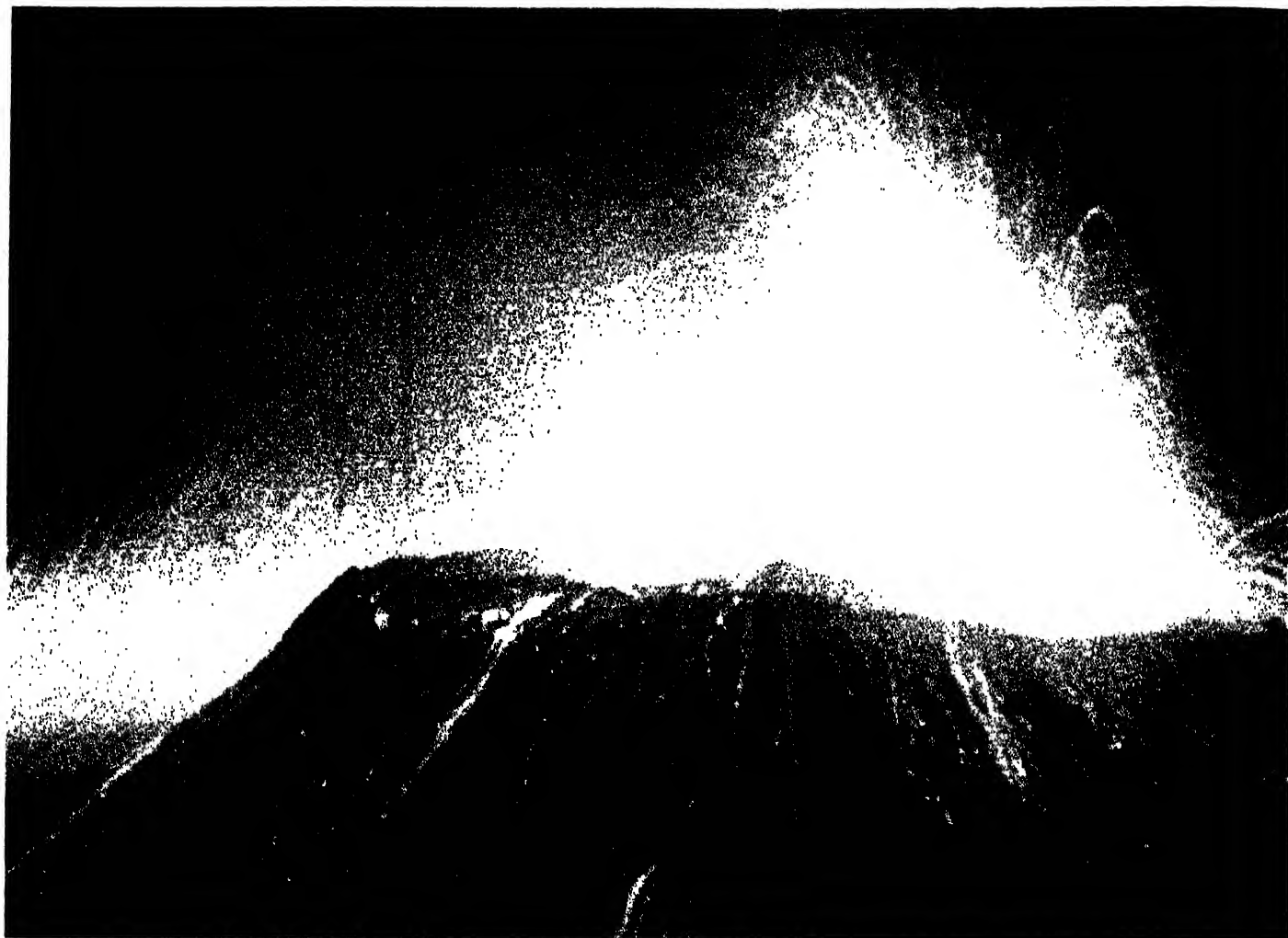




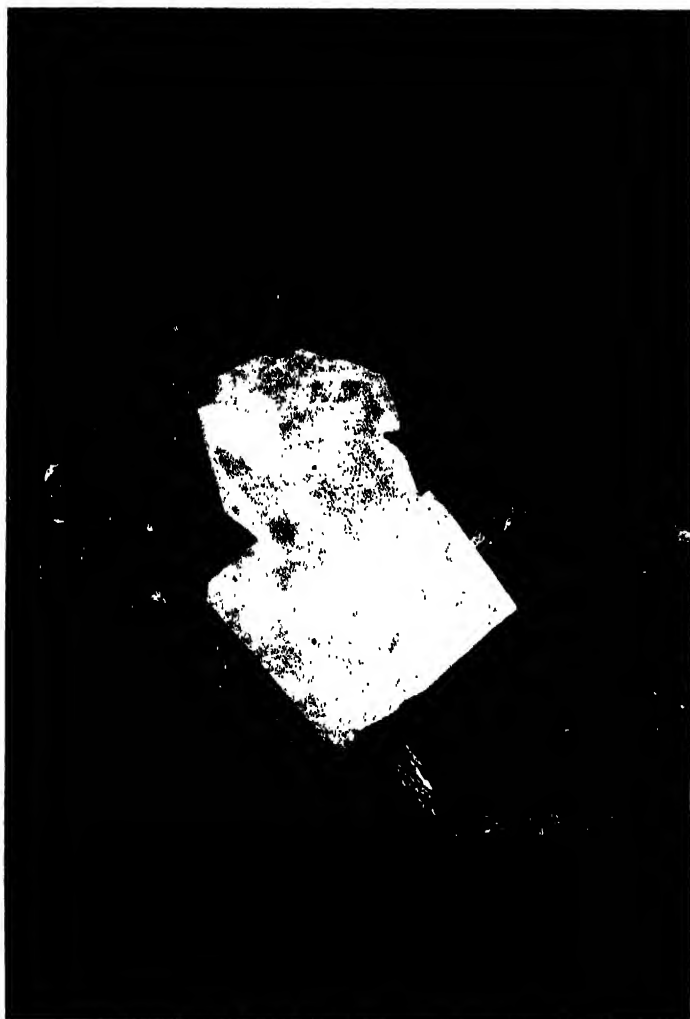








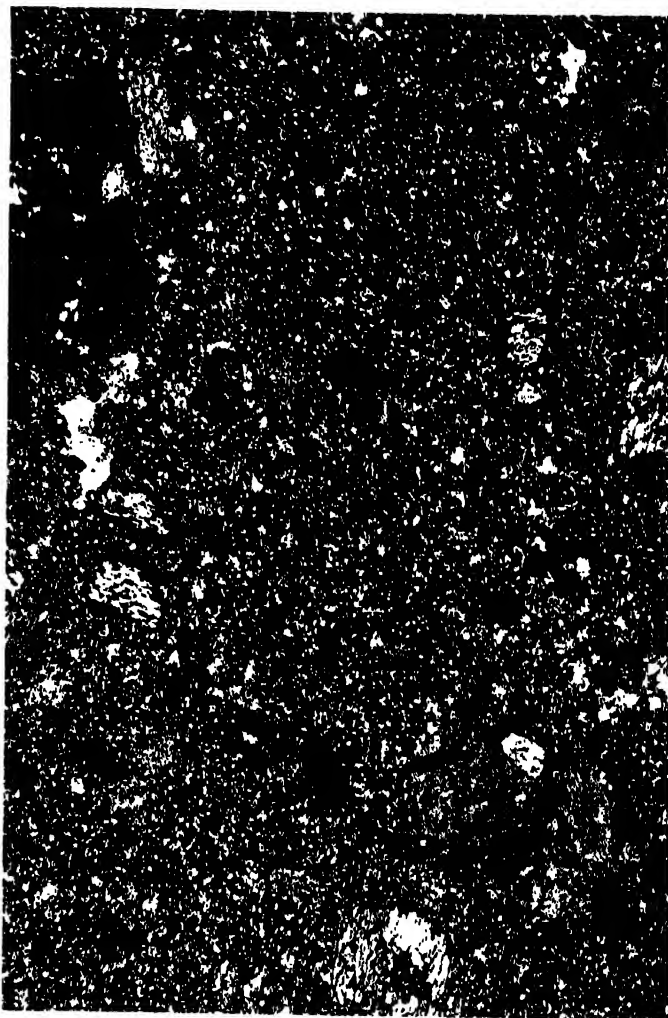
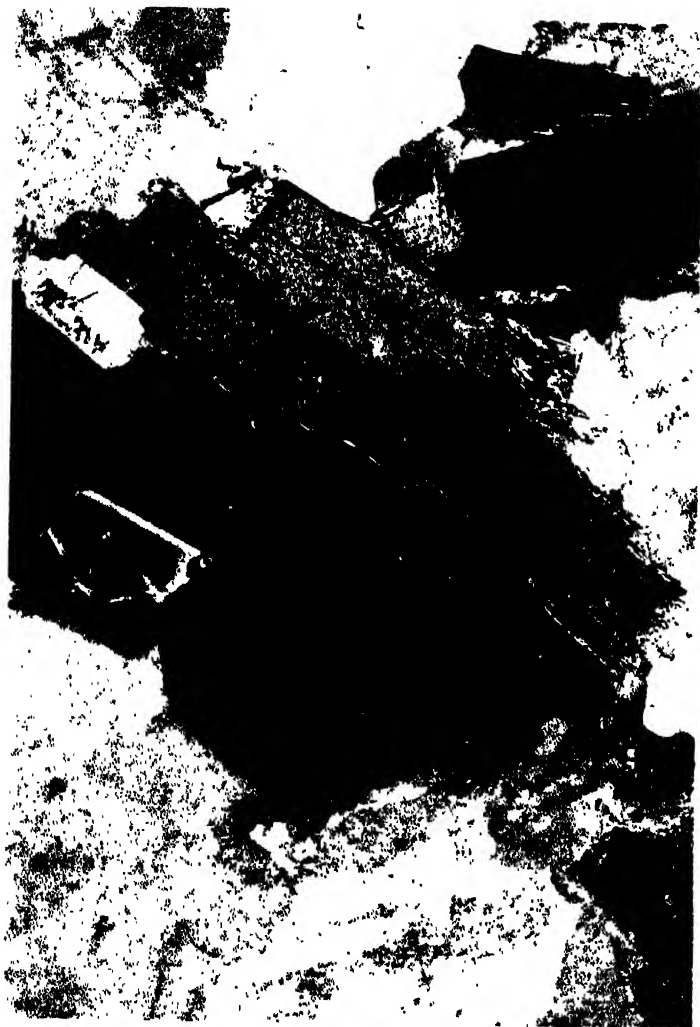
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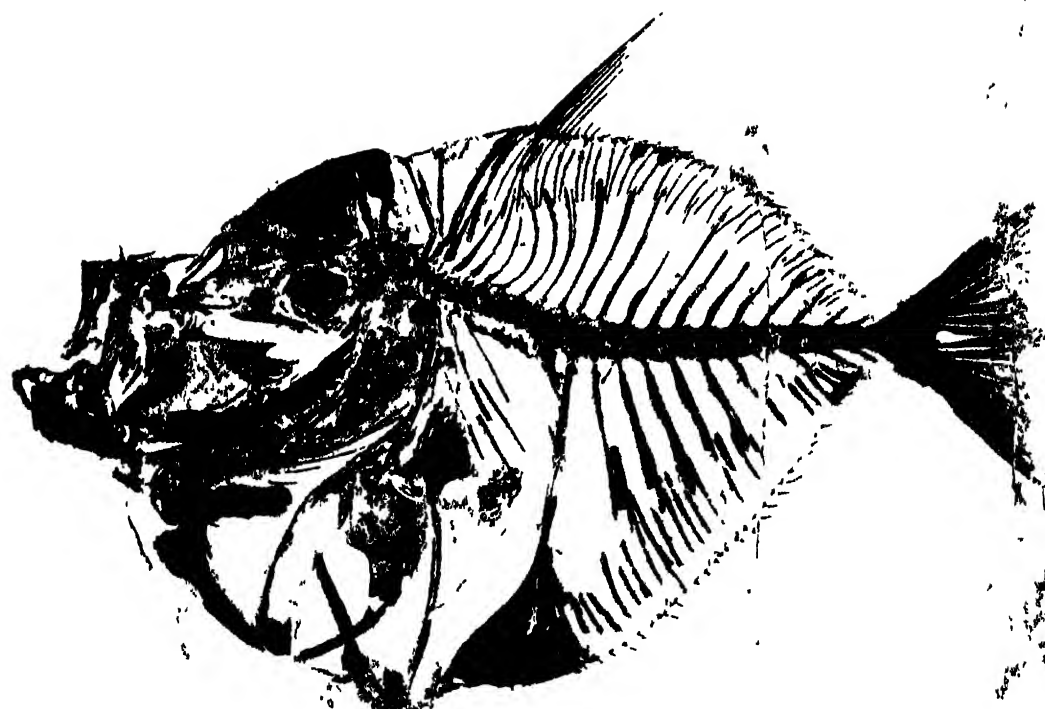
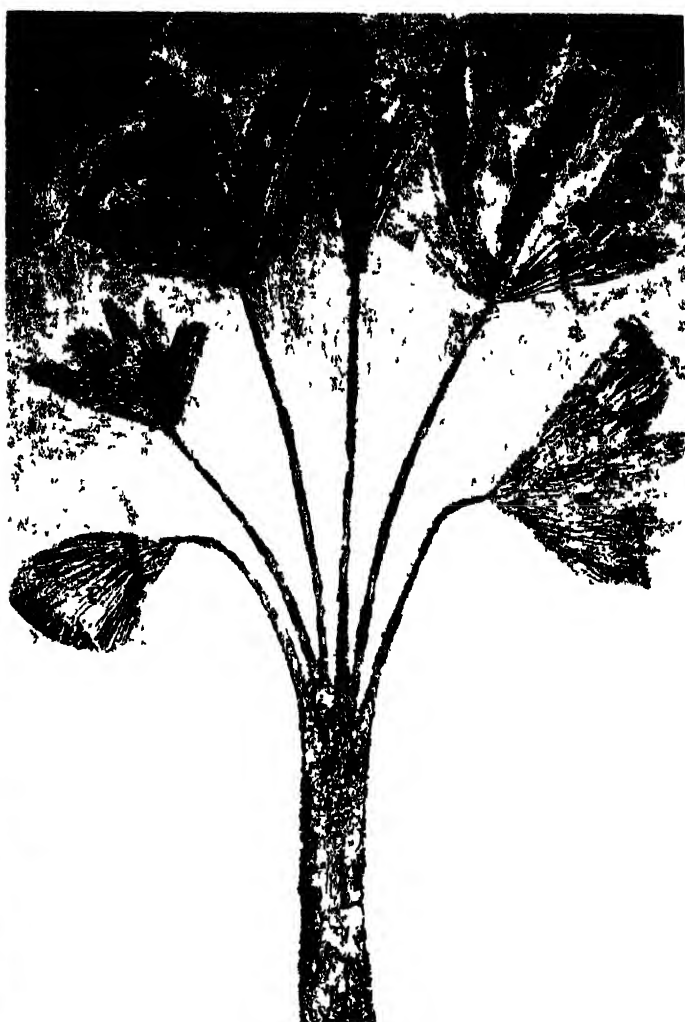
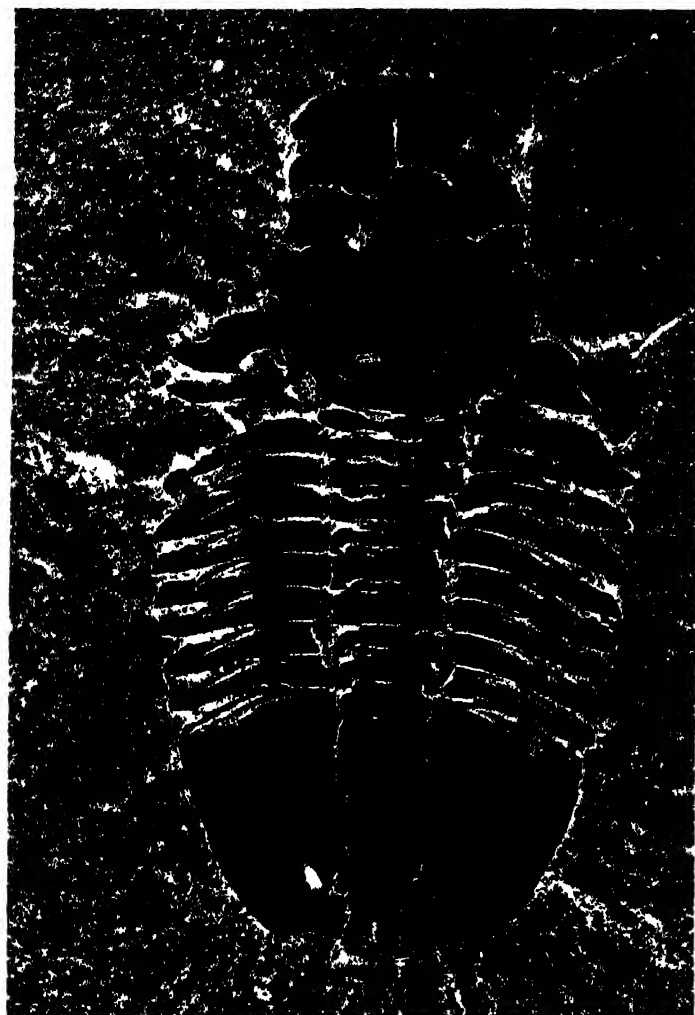
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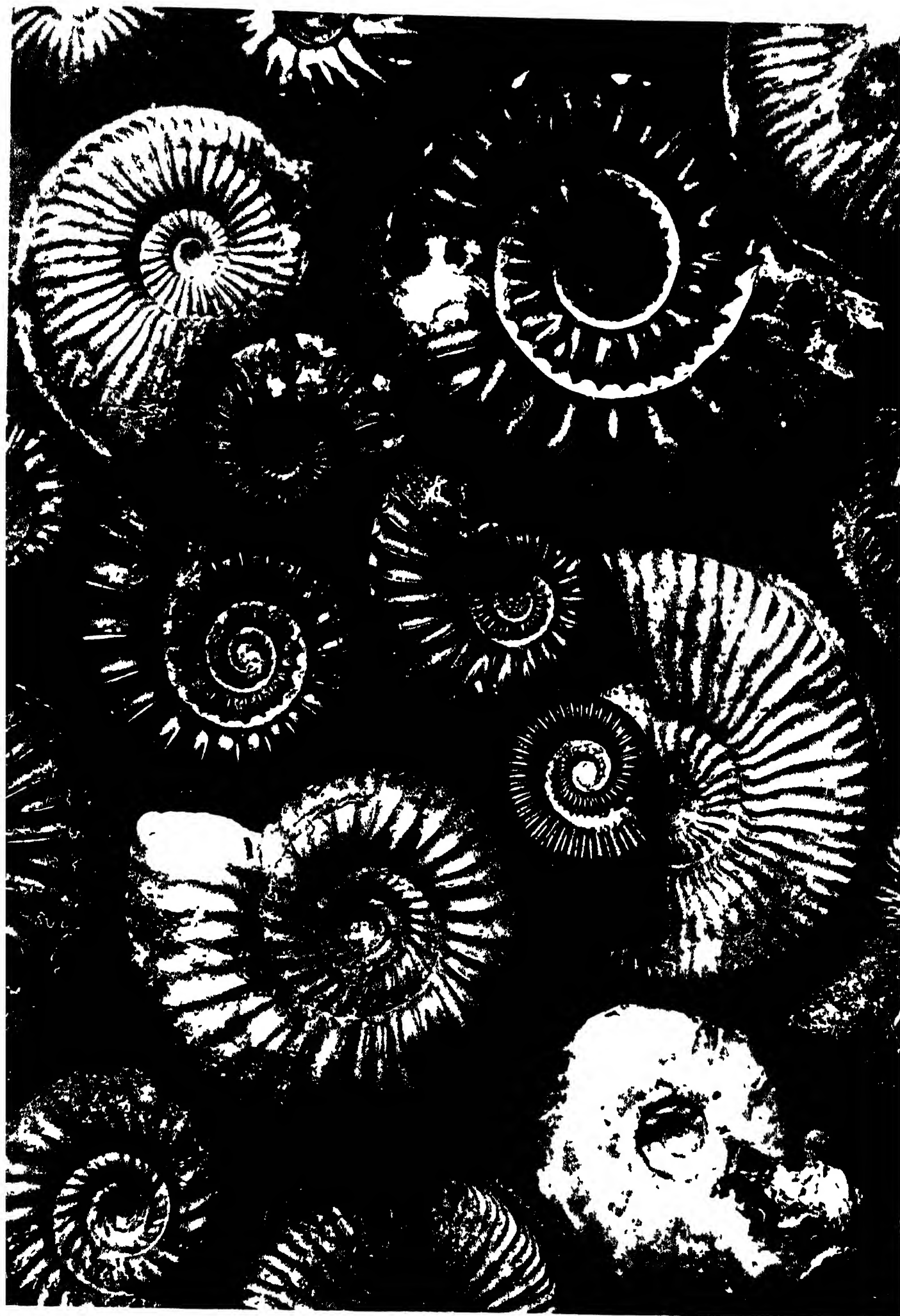












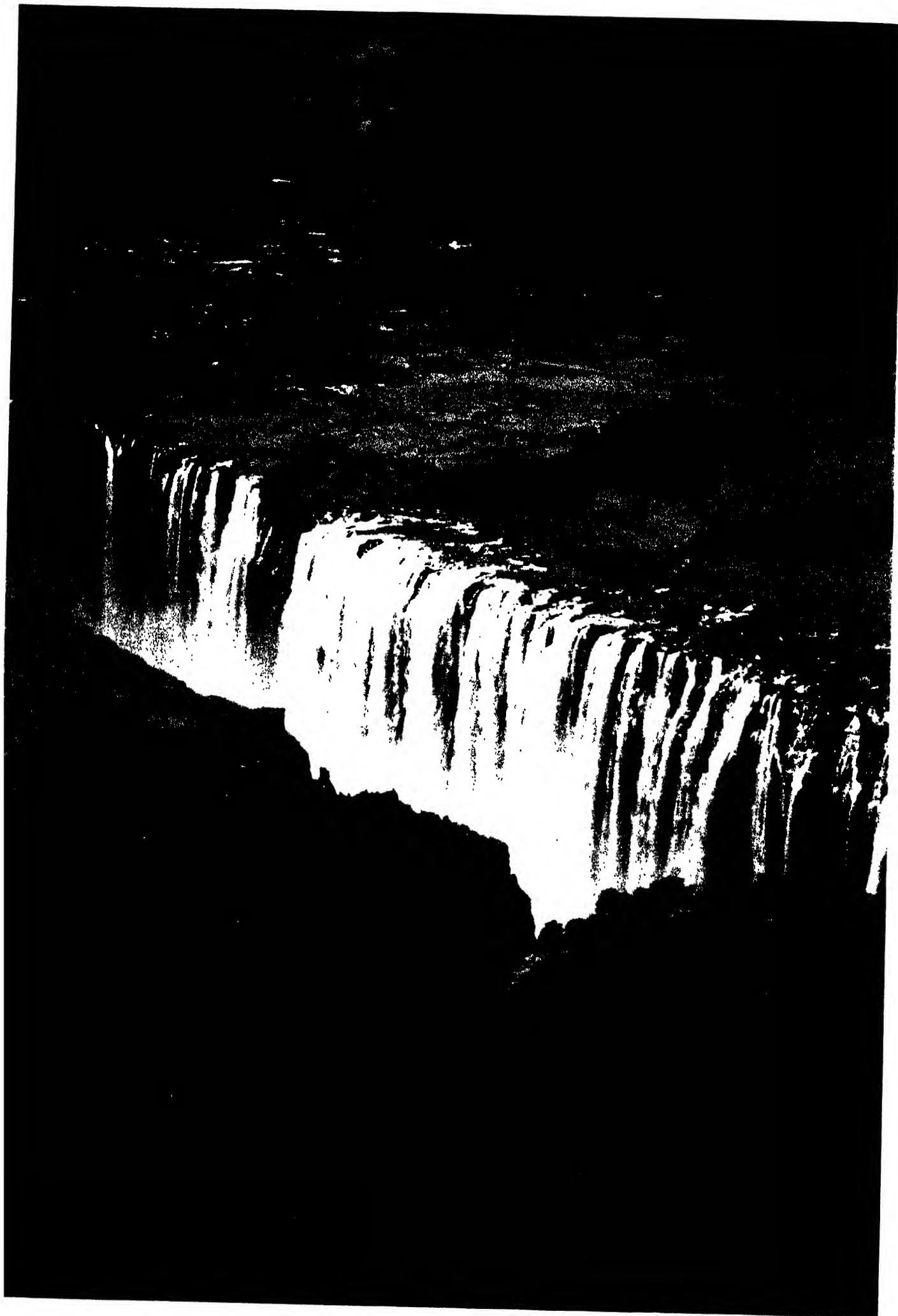


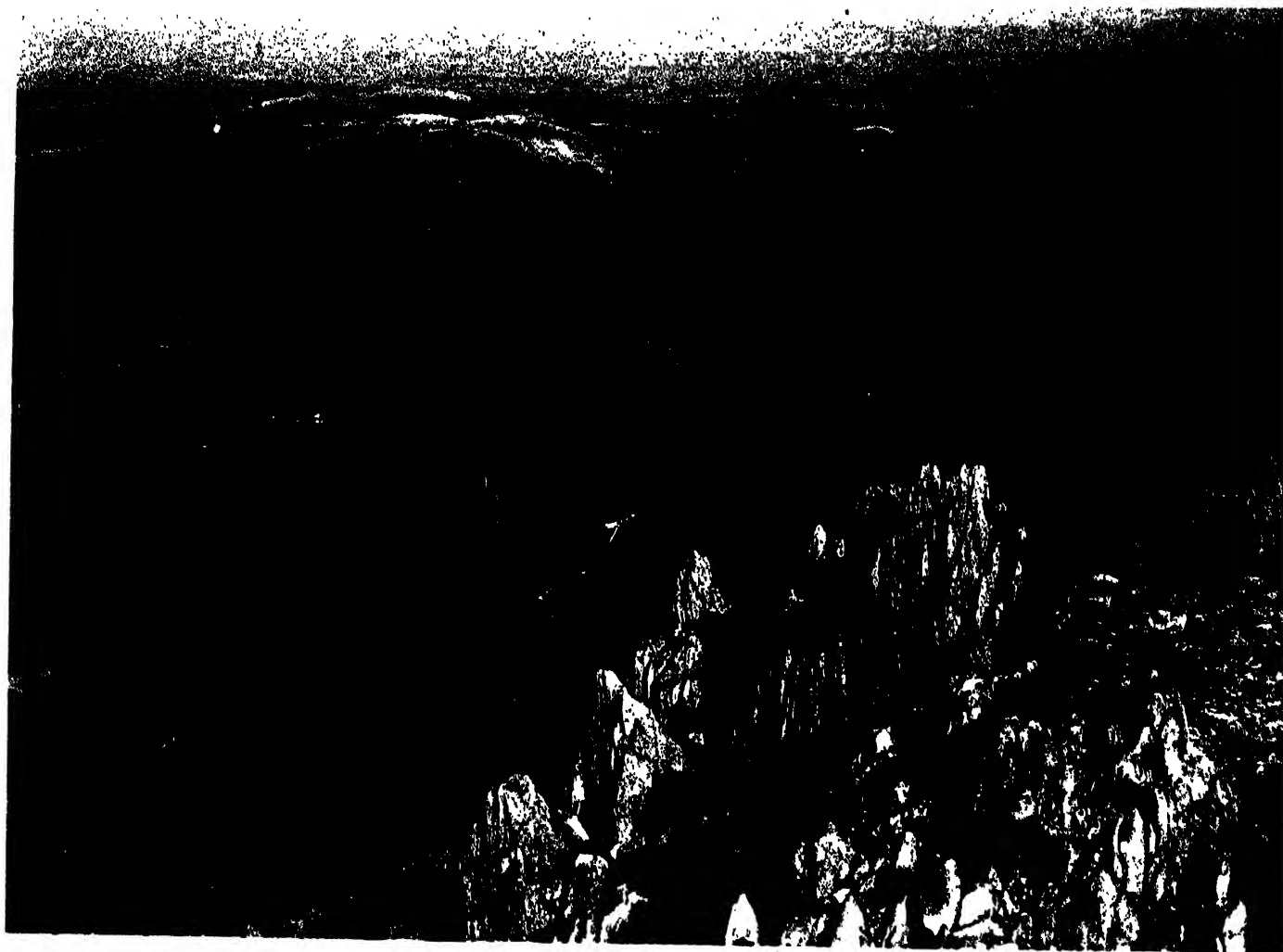


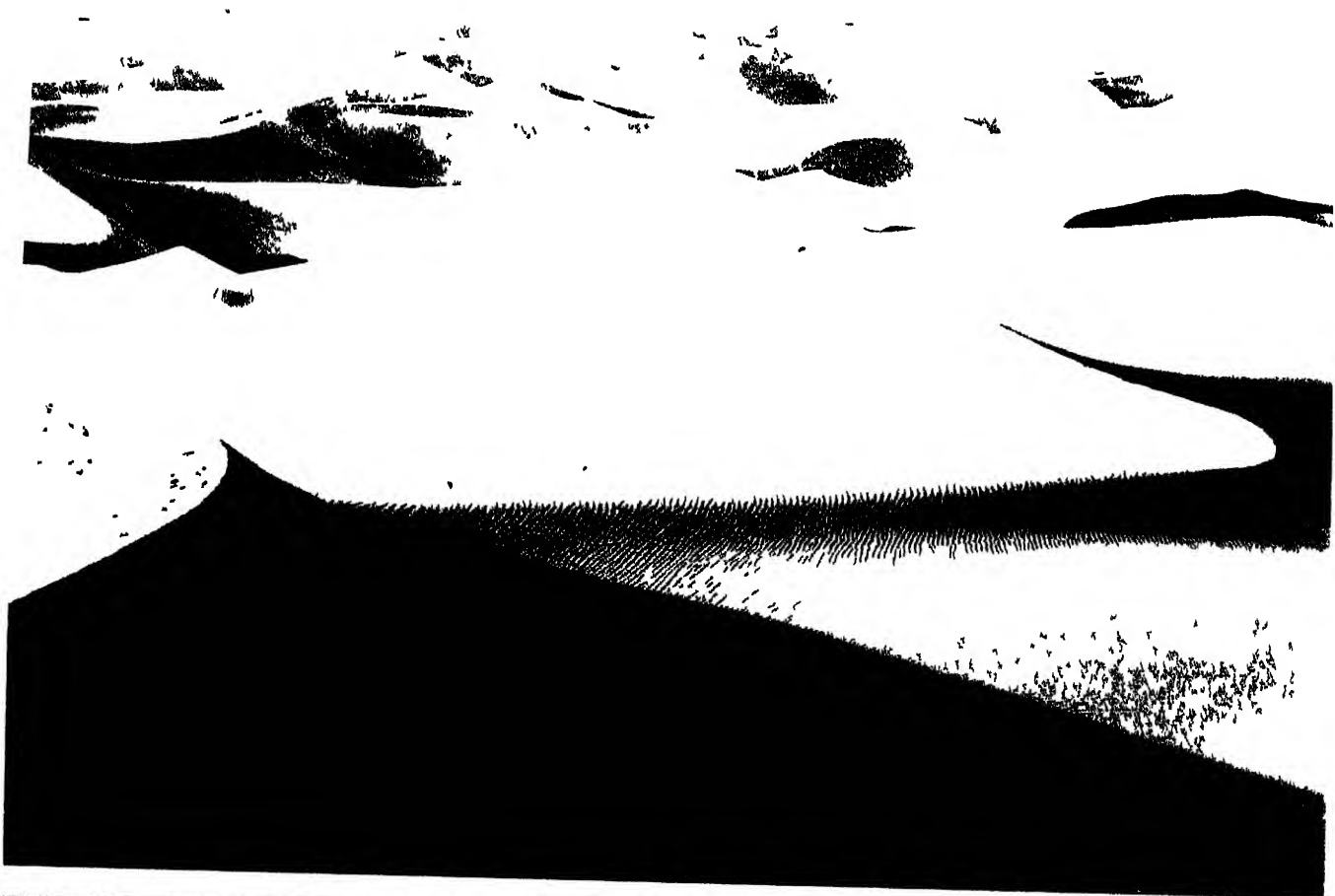


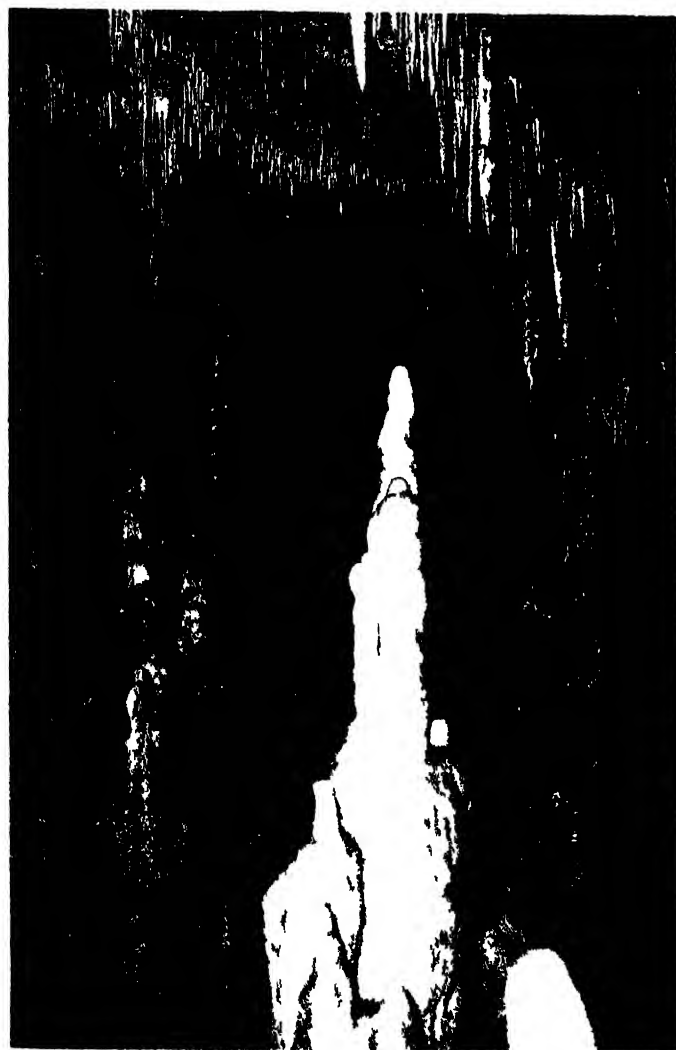
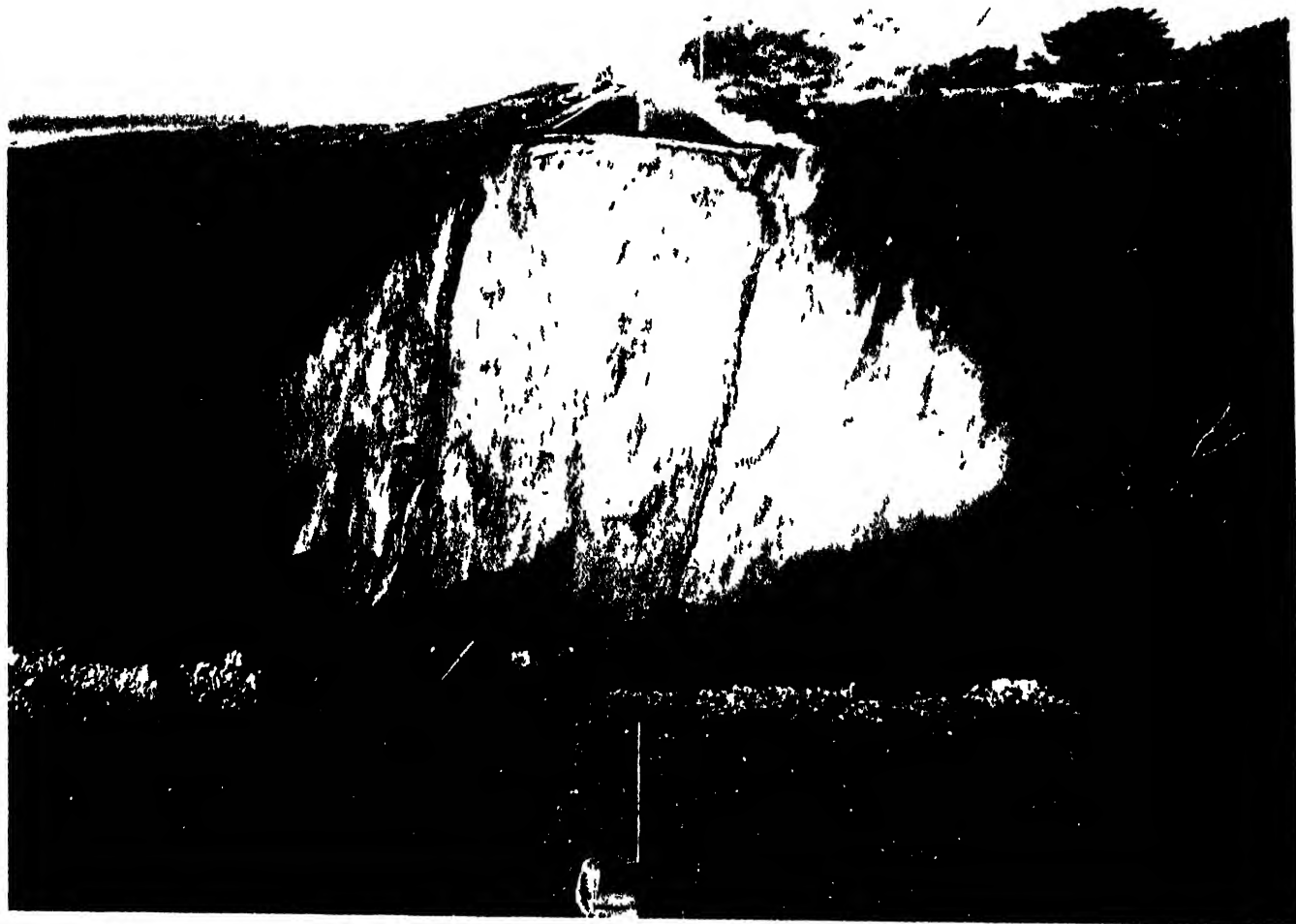








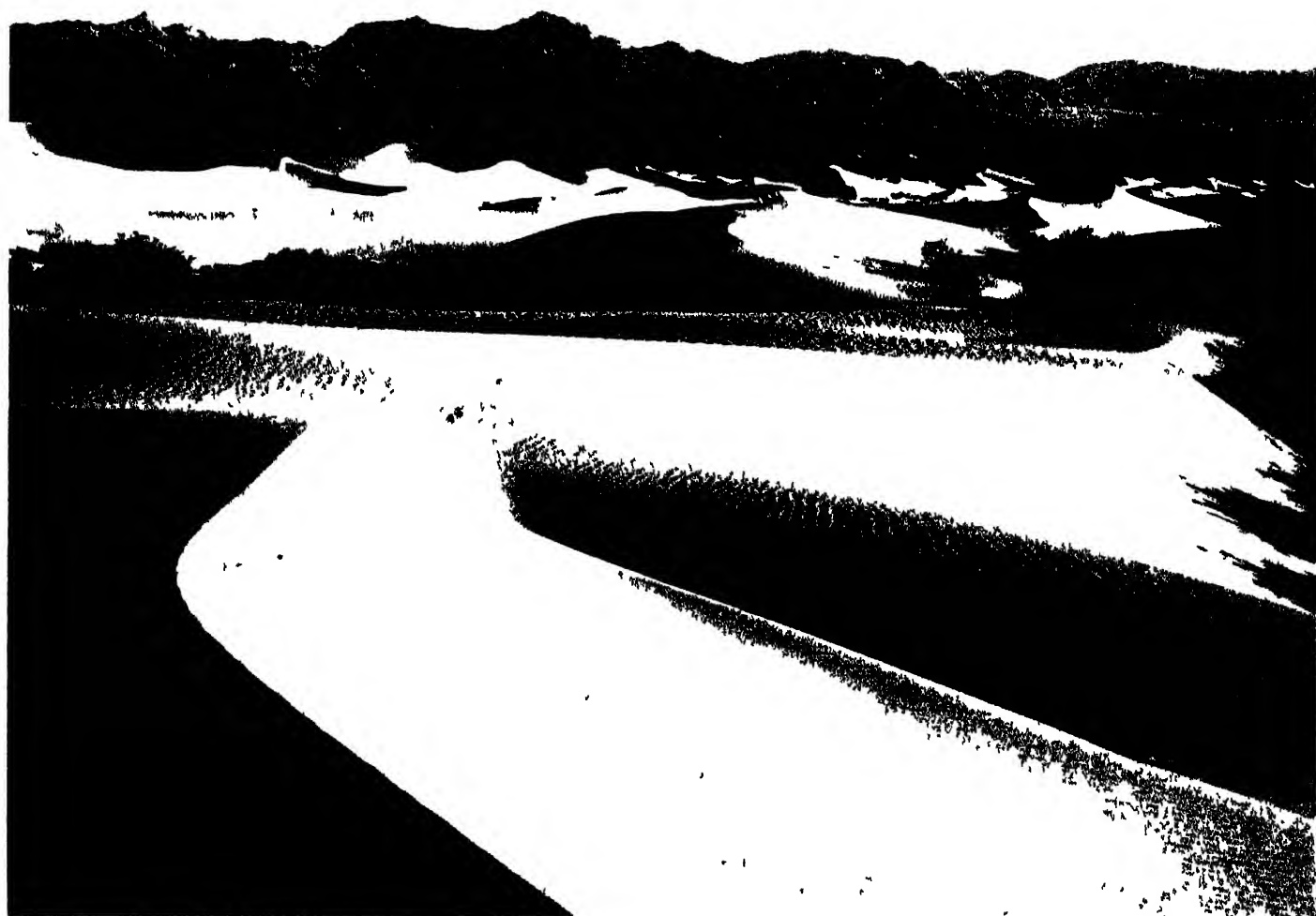
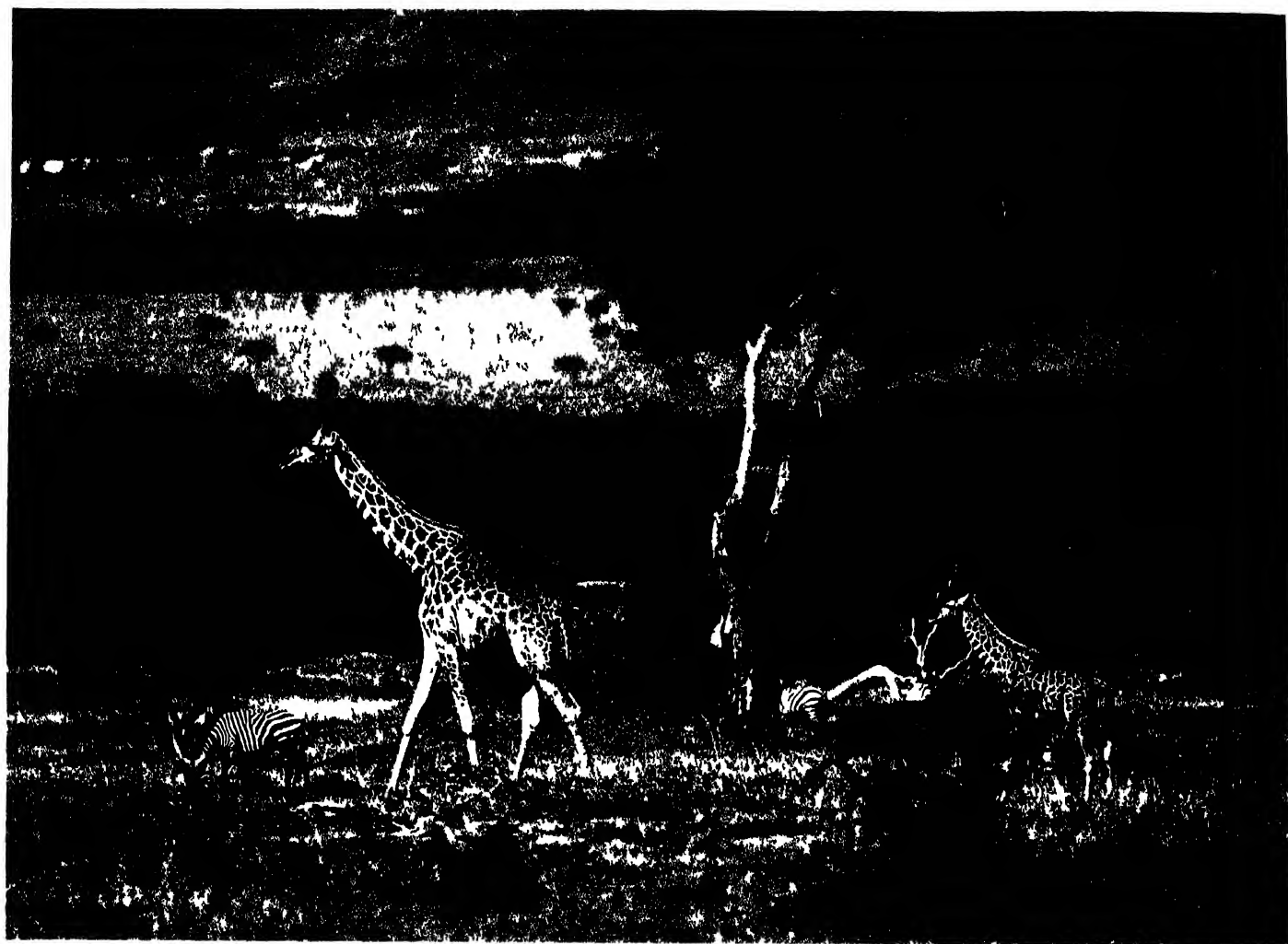


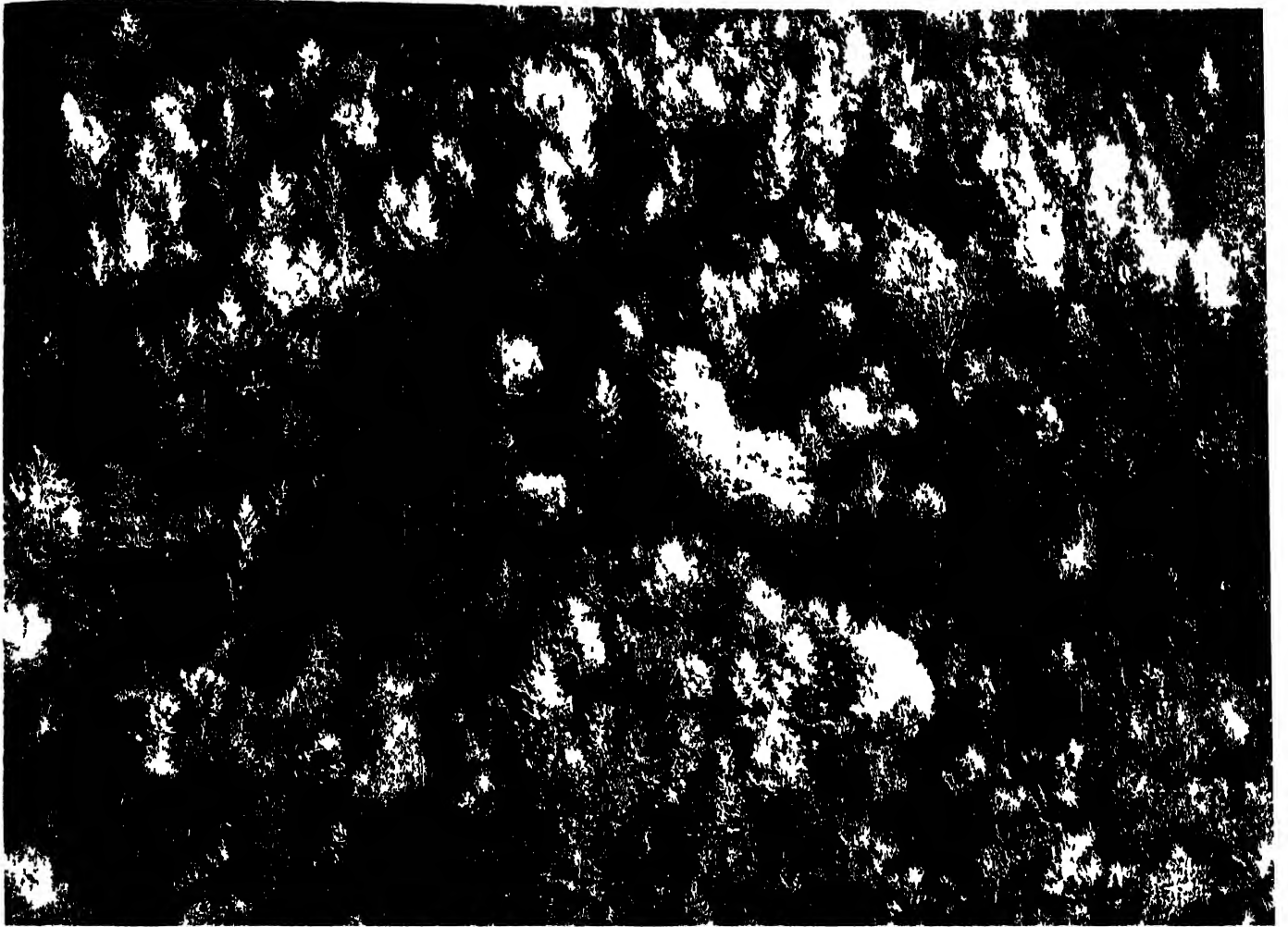


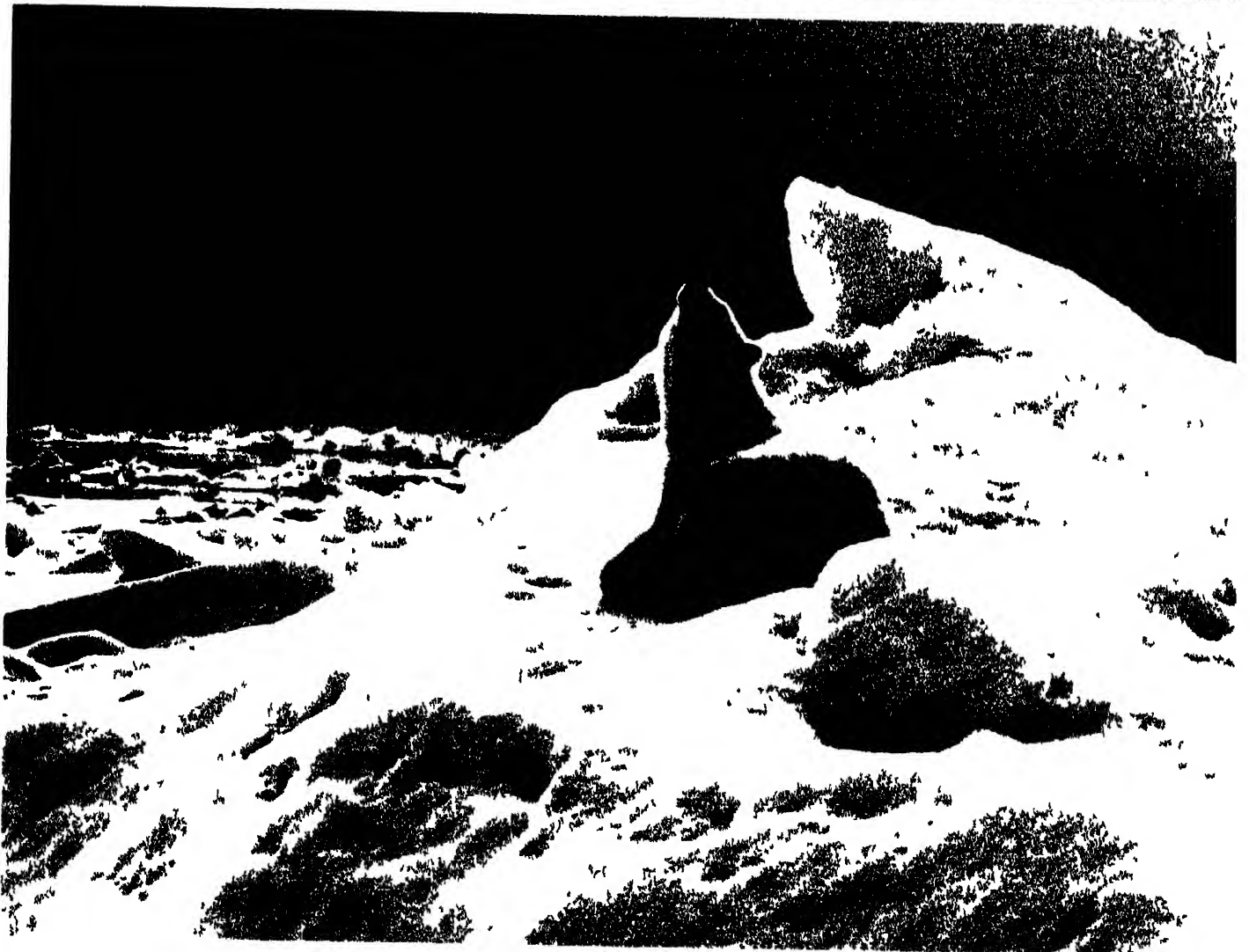












## *The Human Population*



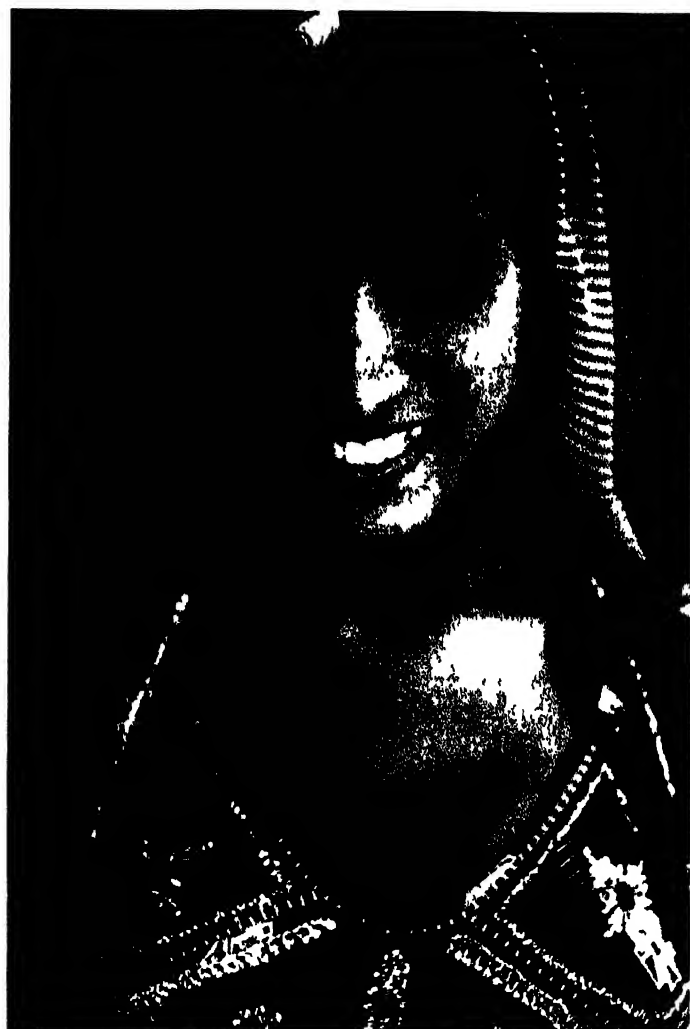




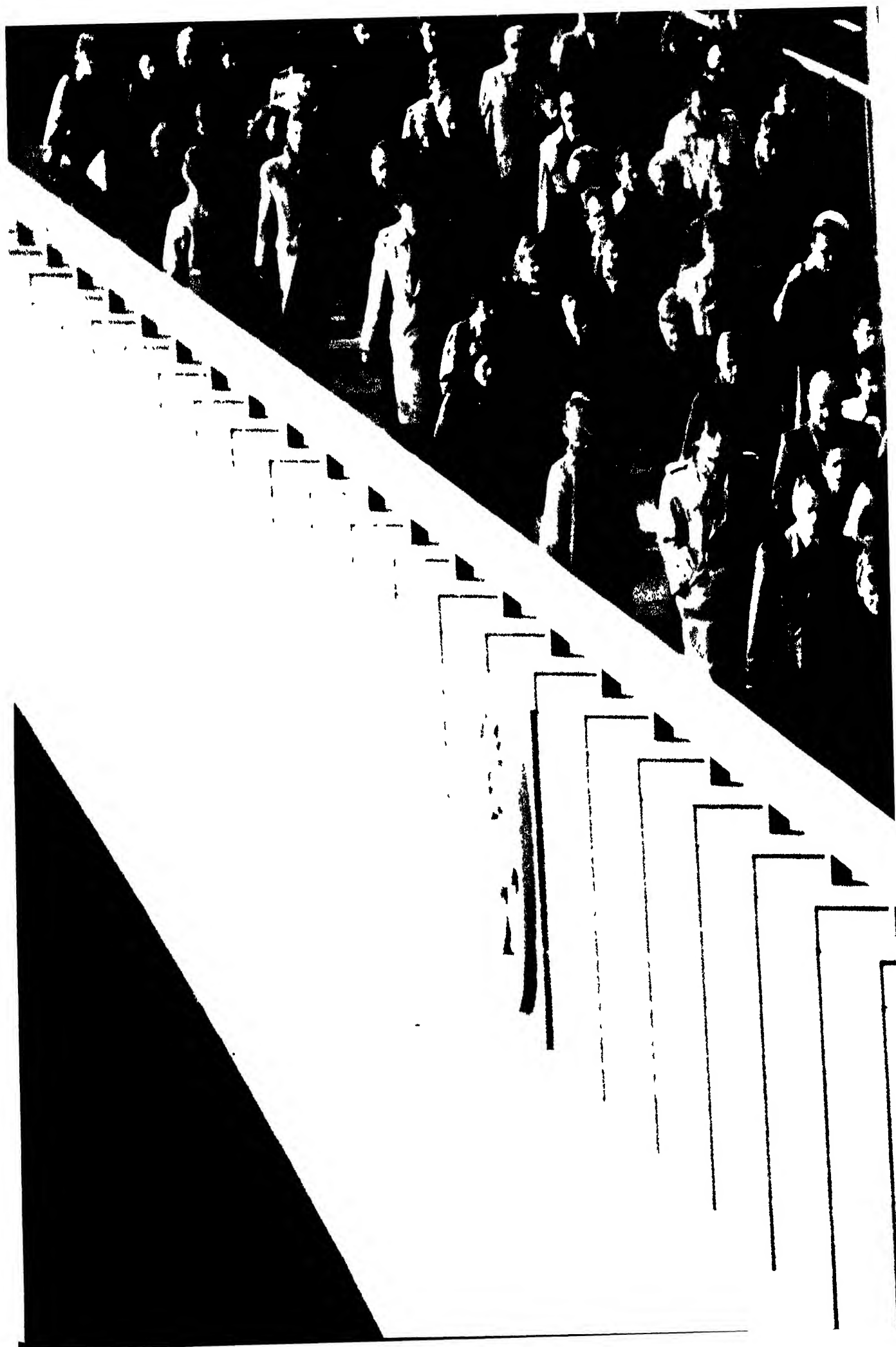












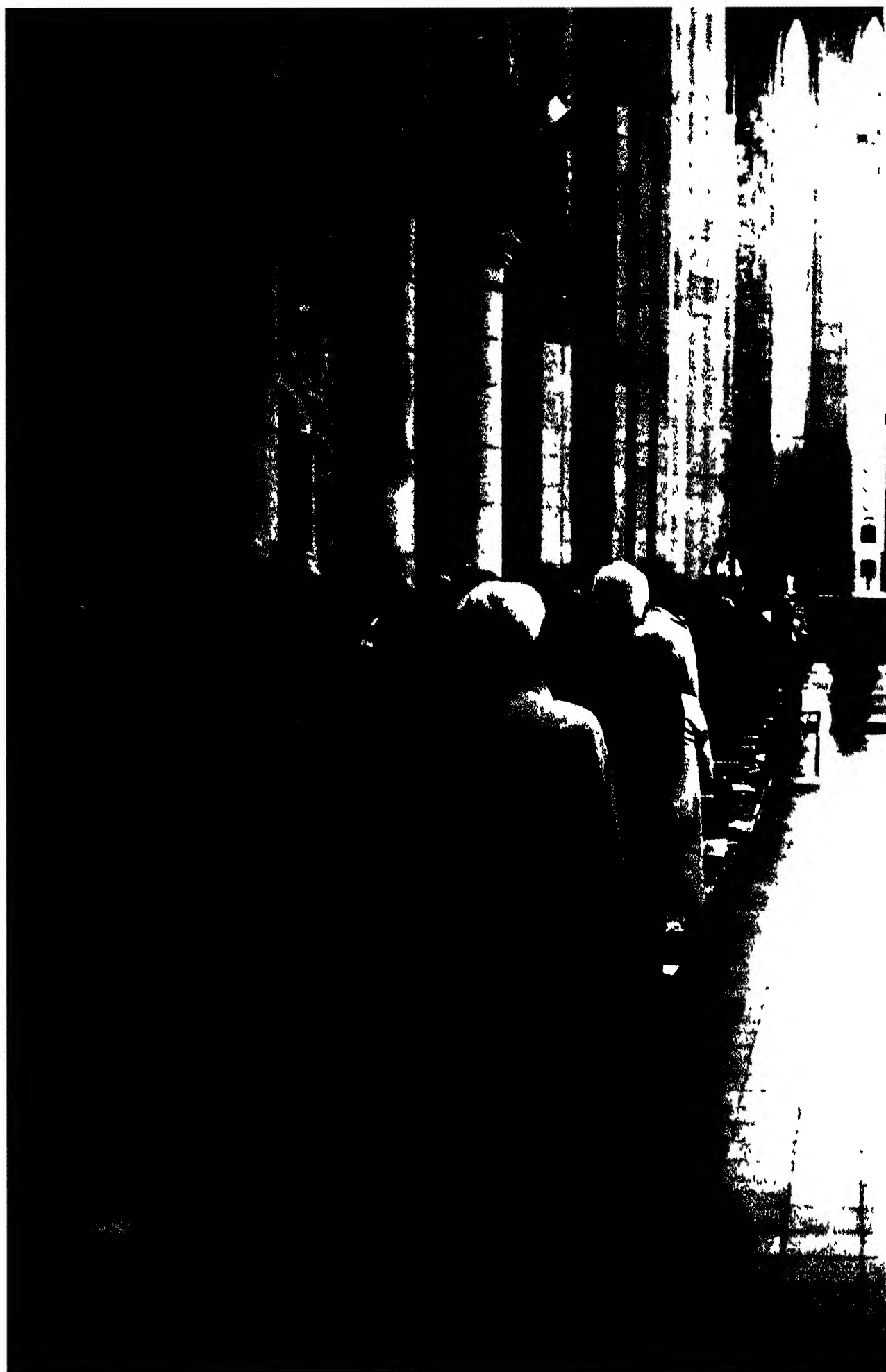






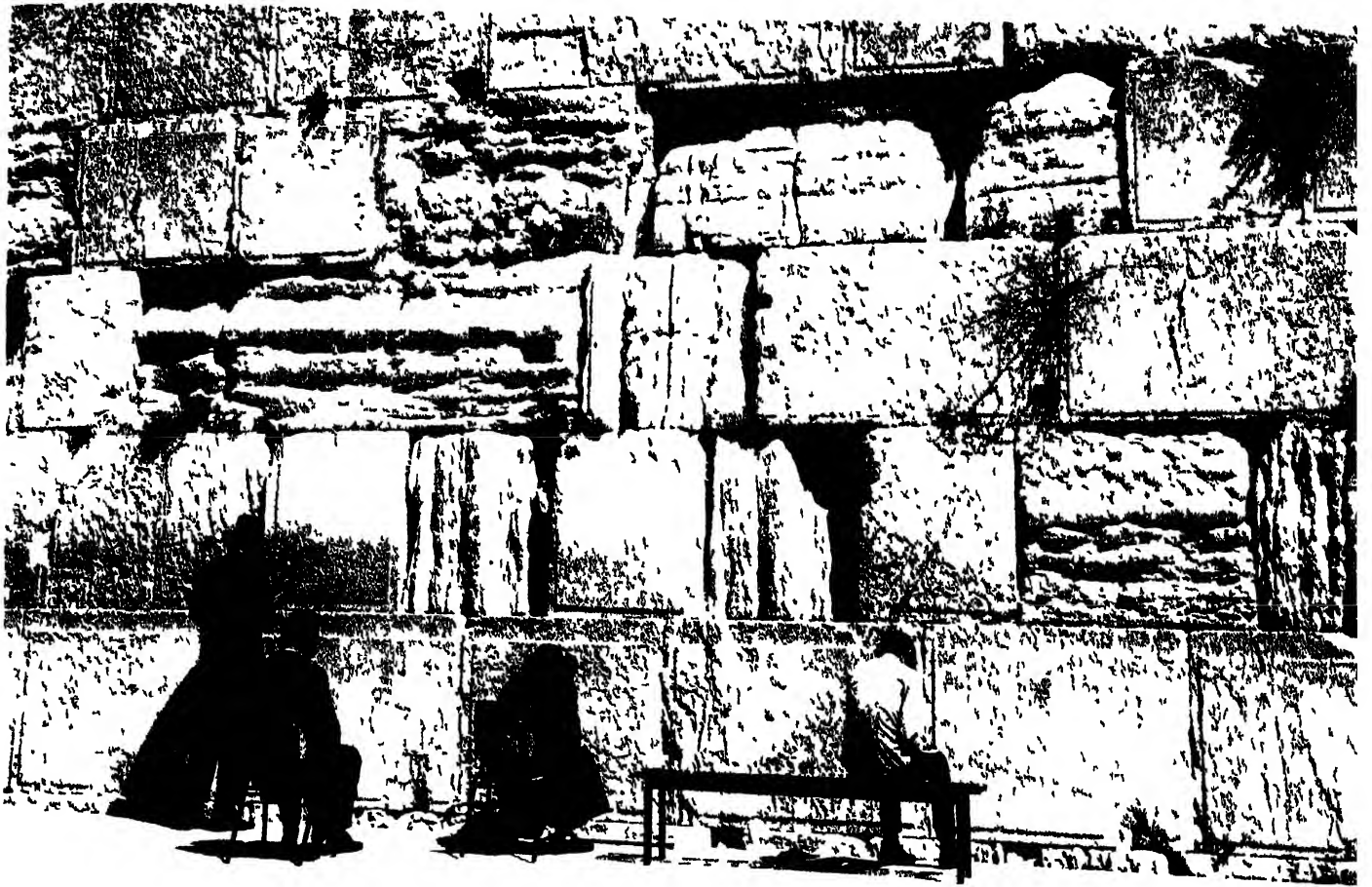




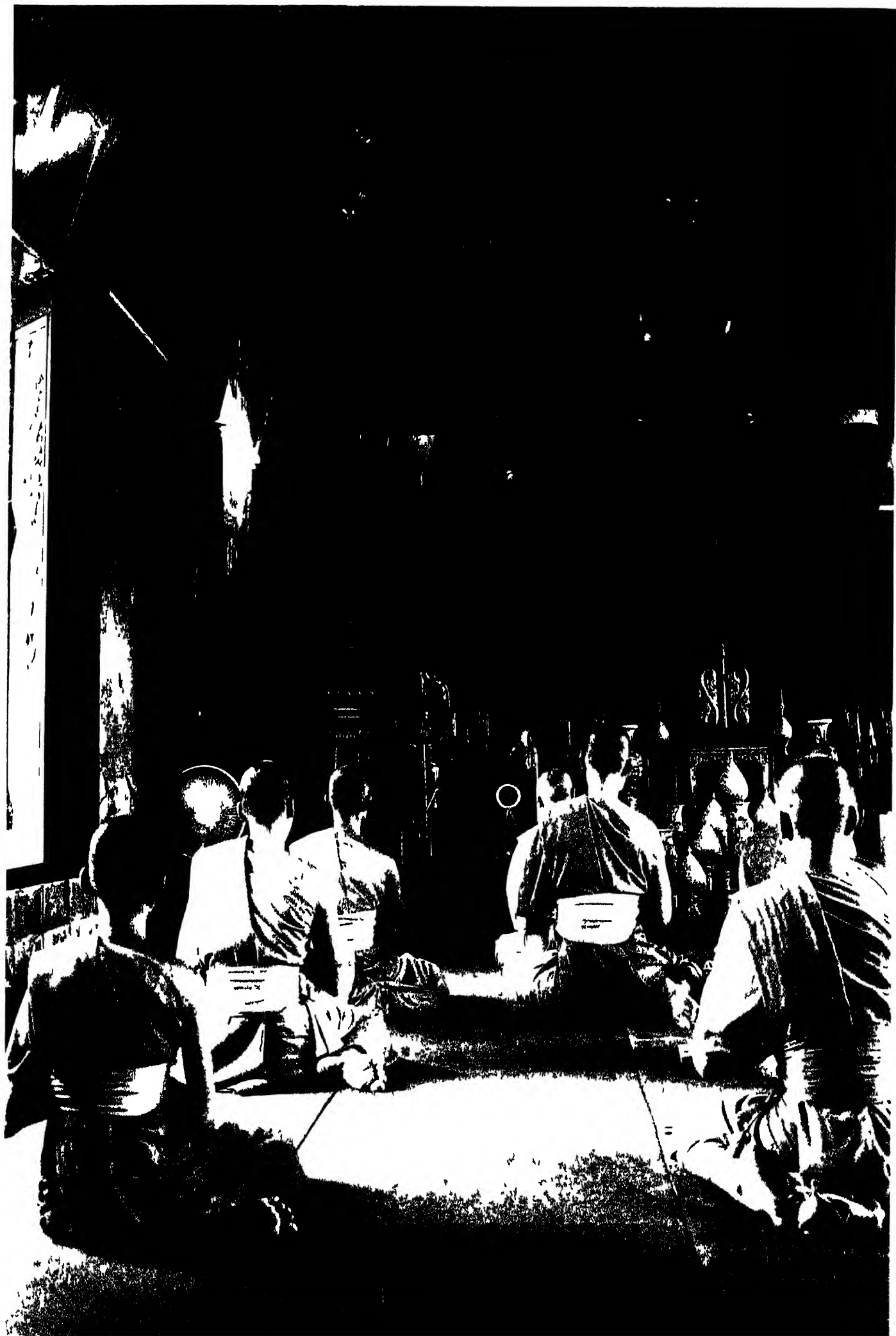








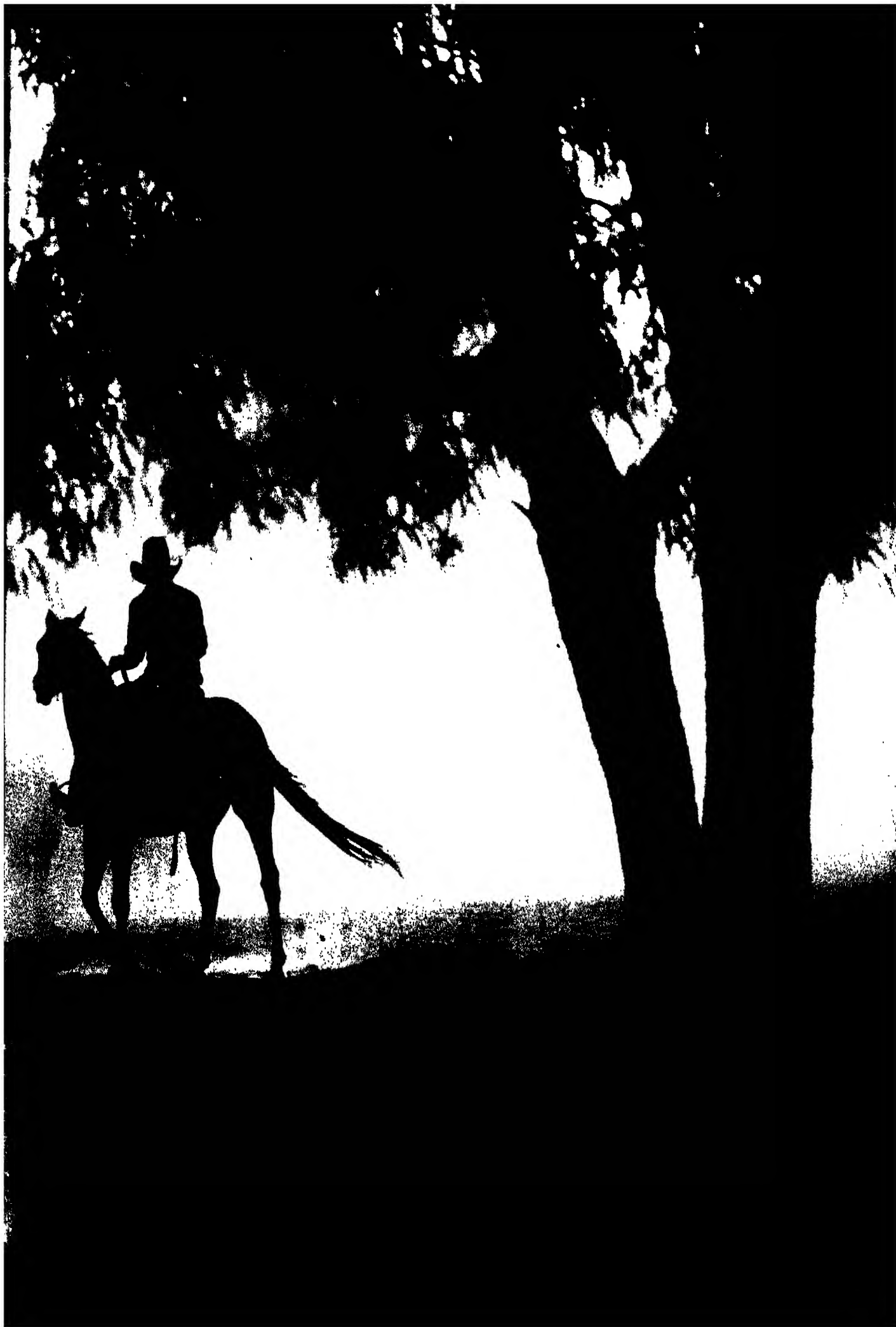


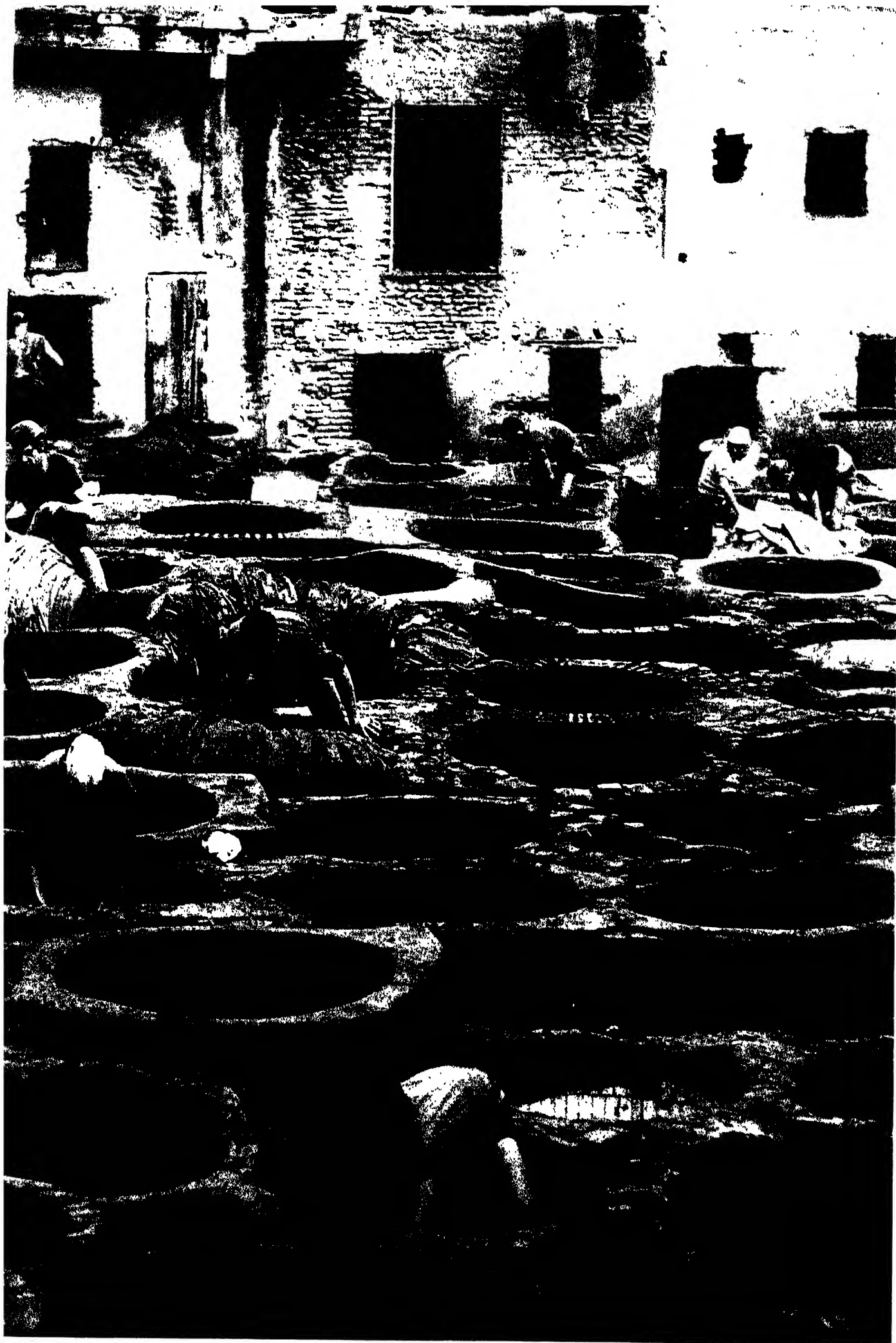


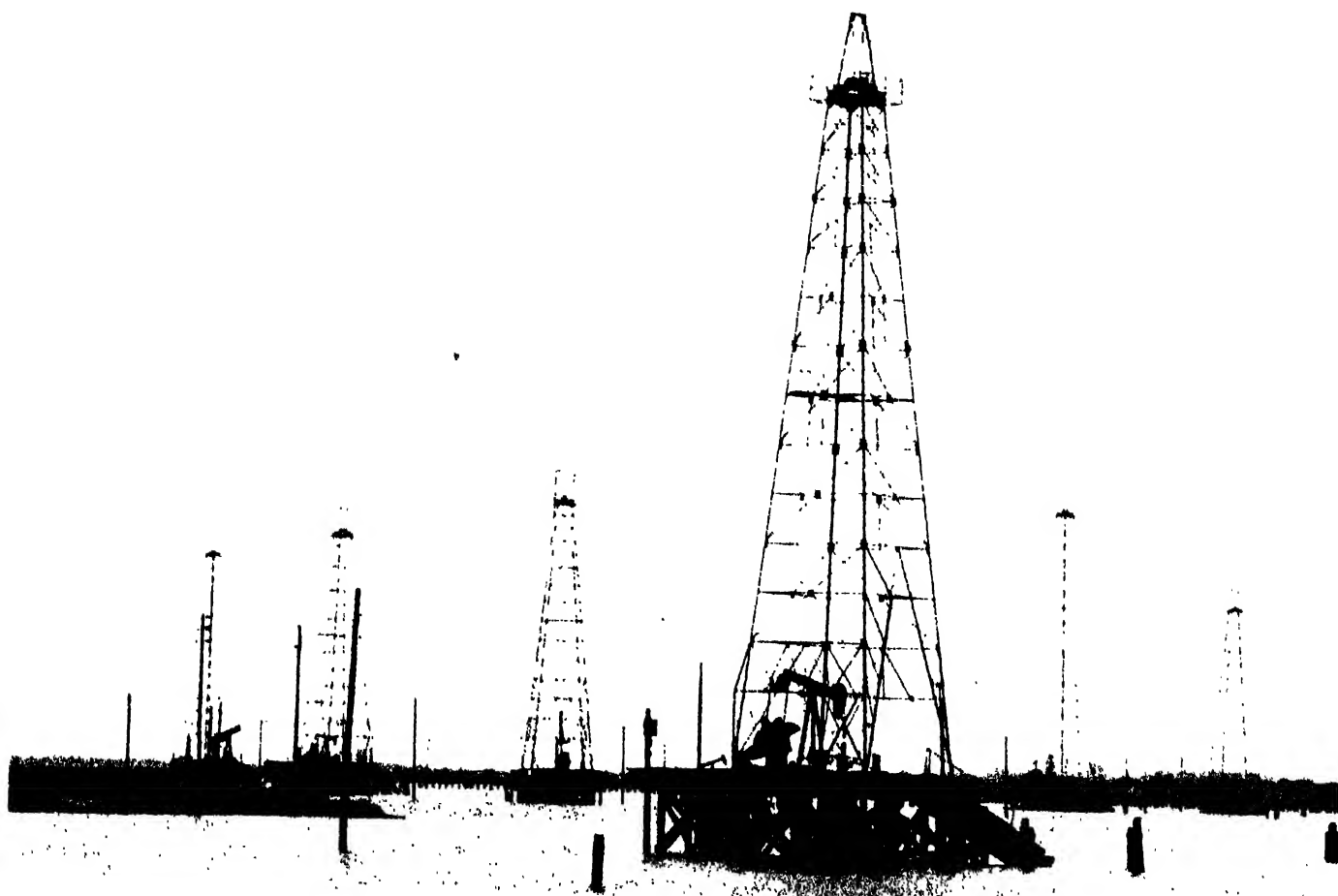
## *Economic Resources*











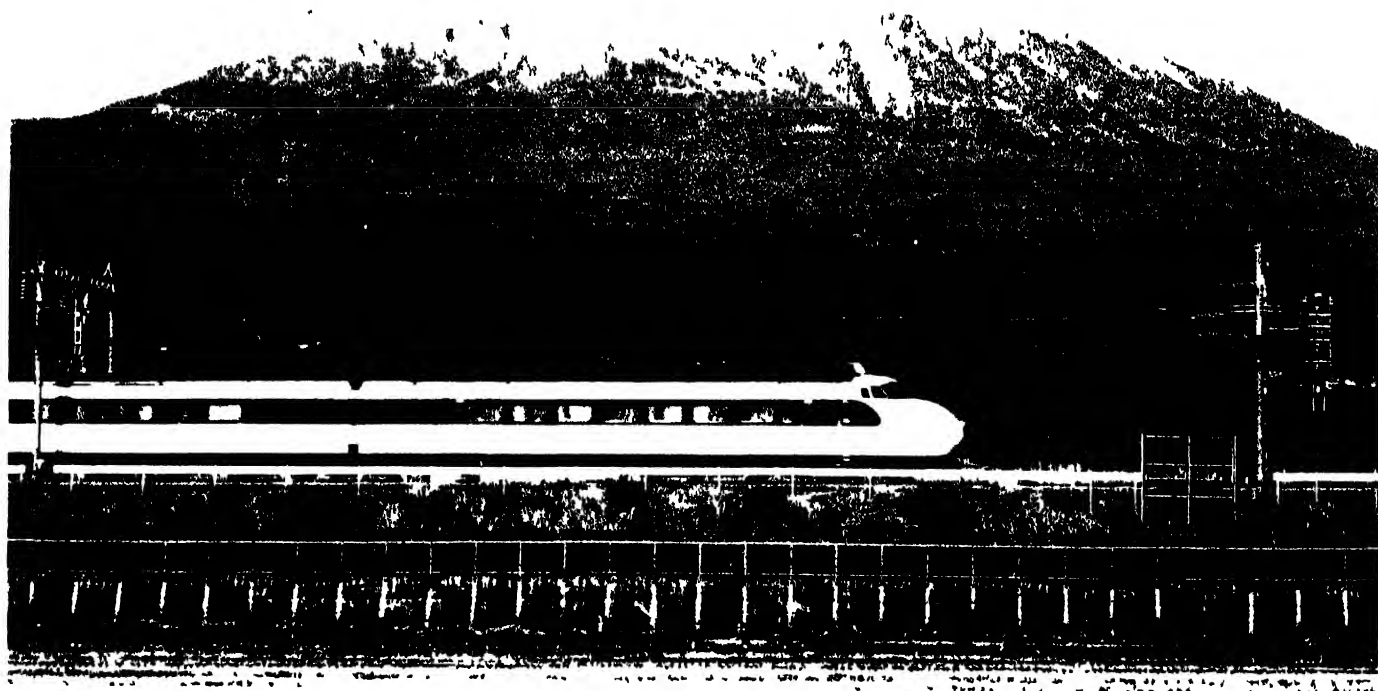
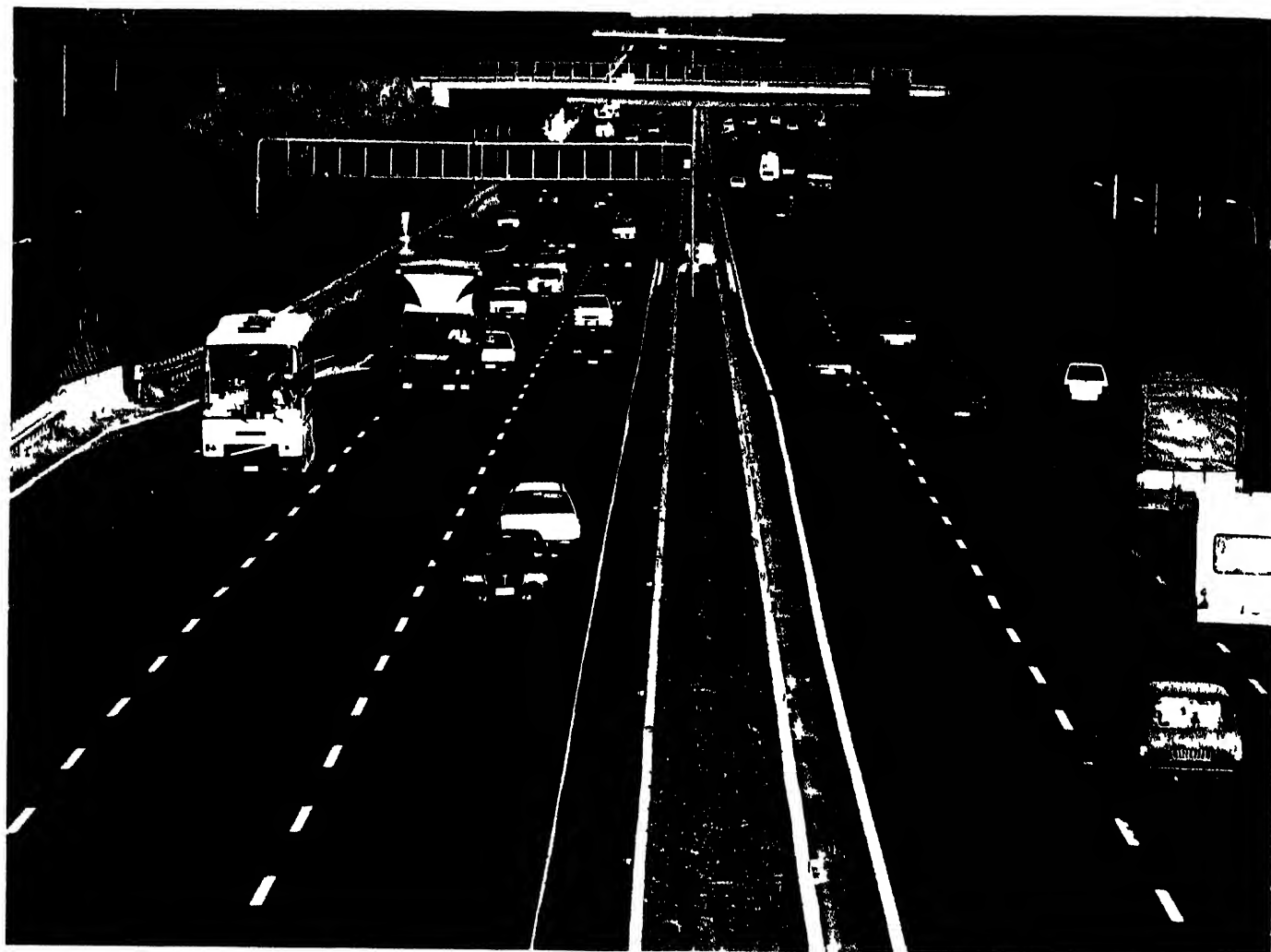


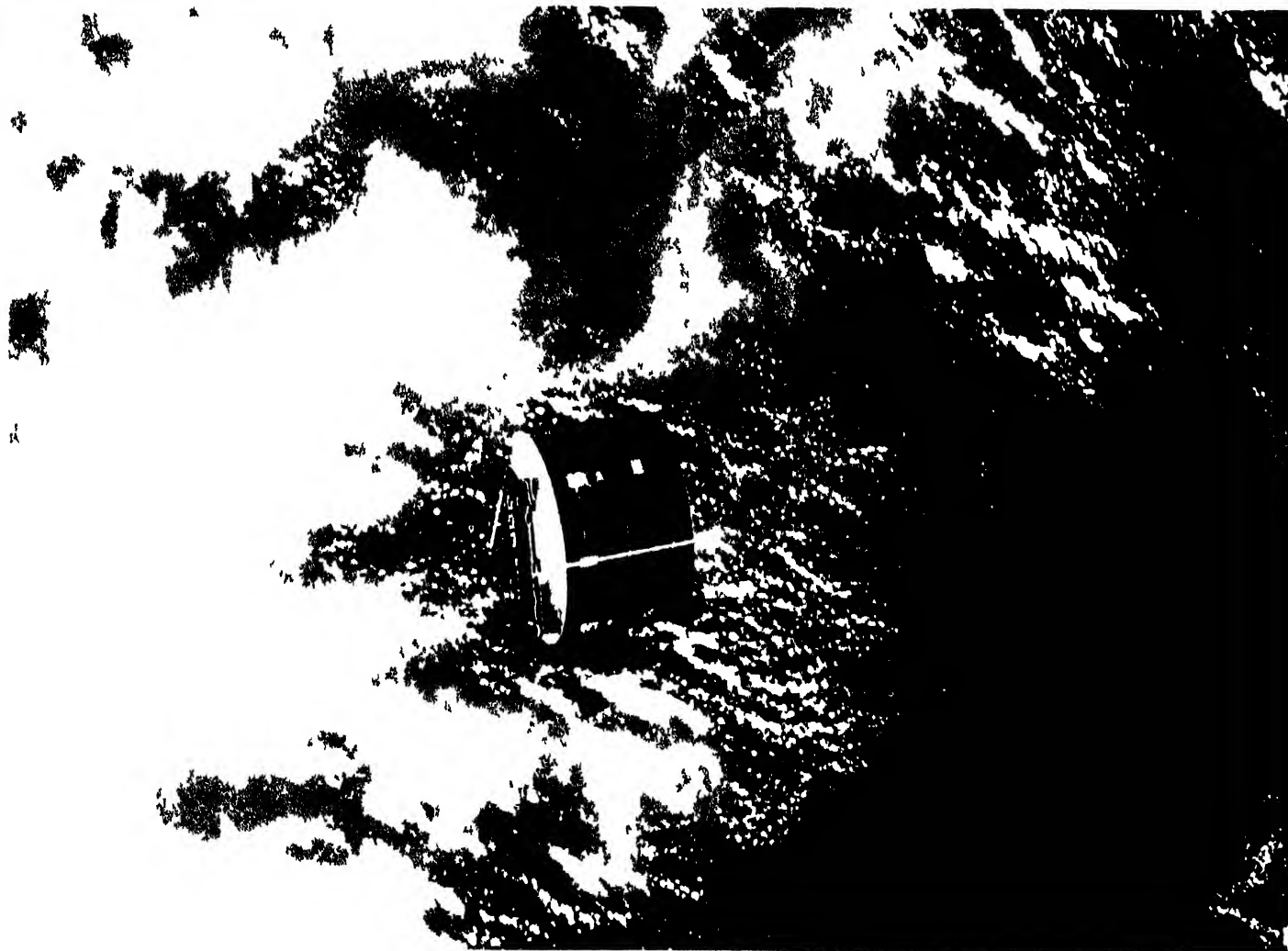






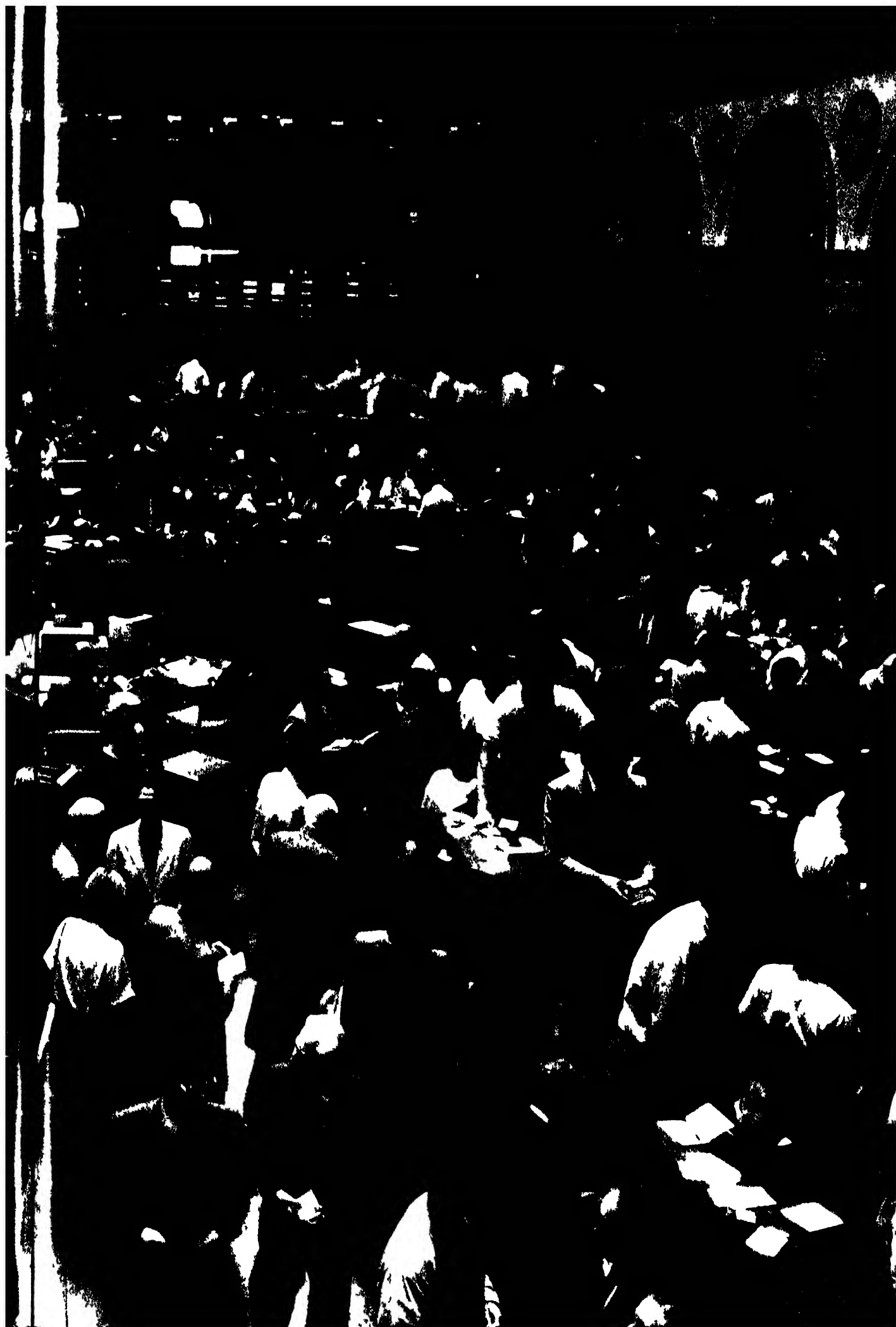






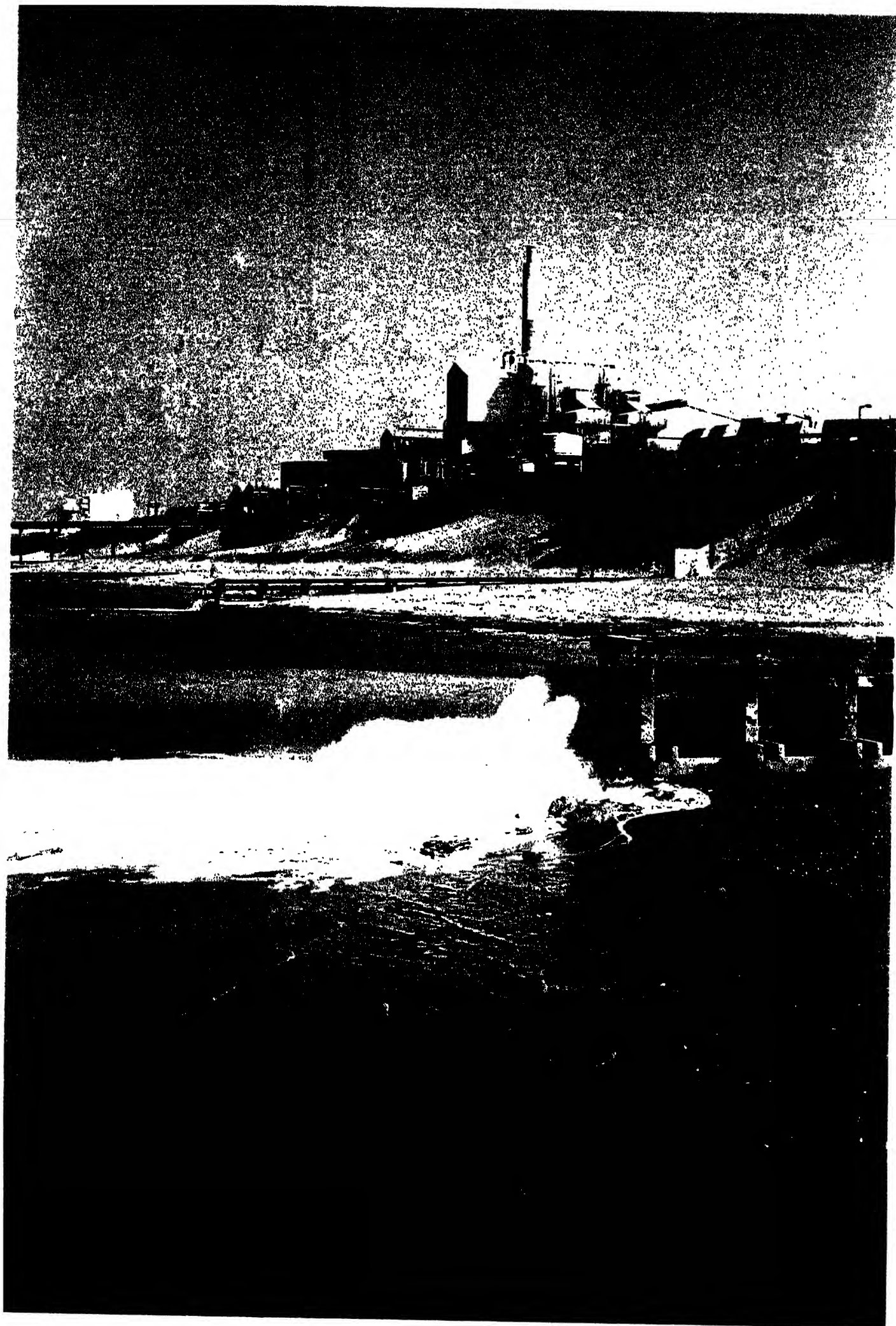












# WORLD STATISTICS

The section of statistics compiled below is intended—through description and analysis of demographic, social, and economic phenomena—to unfold a panorama of information useful in proving a fuller understanding of contemporary reality and, through elaboration of the data collected, to forecast the future course of the parameters noted.

This, like any statistical survey, was carried out in two steps: first, a “descriptive” approach based on the preselection of appropriate statistical indicators yielding data organized according to one or more attributes. The second step, “inductive” or “inferential,” is more frankly interpretive and formulates hypotheses on how to read these data and predict the future. Moreover, to avoid as much as possible a lack of methodological homogeneity in the search and compilation of the data, it was preferable to rely on statistics processed by organizations operating on an international scale.

In the section which follows the reader will therefore find ten tables prepared according to rigorous criteria which have been designed to supply the greatest possible amount of information on the current and future state of the world.

Table 1 provides demographic data and vital statistics on all countries, including population structure (distribution and density) and dynamics (rates of demographic growth, birth, mortality, life expectancy, population projections for the year 2000 and, by age groups, the year 2025). Table 2 also deals with demographic factors, covering such social indicators as food and energy consumption, health, illiteracy, student distribution, and public expenditures for education.

All the other tables, with the exception of Table 6, deal with the dynamics of the world economy on a country-by-country basis. Thus, Table 3 is a summary of labor and economic development with data on the work force, gross national product (per capita and economic sector), inflation rate, and fluctuations in consumer prices. Table 4 covers money and finance (national currencies and their rates of exchange as well as money reserves and external debt) and Table 5 illustrates foreign trade and tourism (including the volume of exports and imports, balance of payments, and tourist flow). Table 6 describes the transportation networks (roads, rails, ships, and airports) and communications

media (books, dailies, and periodicals).

Tables 7, 8, 9, and 10 survey economic production for a range of products and their national share of world output, with specific reference to agriculture, livestock, and fisheries; minerals and metallurgy; industry and industrial goods; and, finally, energy resources and the production and circulation of transportation means.

**Statistical sources.** The following list indicates all the sources used in the compilation of the data which appear not only in this section but also in the statistical information provided for each country (geopolitical summary, climate data, administrative structure, and socioeconomic data) and in the tables and graphs included in the “General Geography” section.

*Calendario Atlante De Agostini* 1993, Novara 1992  
*The Statesman's Year-Book* 1992–93, London 1992  
*The World Almanac and Book of Facts* 1993, New York 1992  
*Der Fischer Weltalmanach* 1993, Bonn 1992  
*Atlaséco de poche* 1993, Paris 1992  
*Almanaque Mondial* 1993, Virginia Gardens 1992  
*L'état du monde* 1992–1993, Paris 1992  
*Demographic Yearbook* 1988, UN, New York 1988  
*Population and Vital Statistics Report*, UN, New York 1991  
*World Development Report and World Tables* 1992, World Bank, Washington 1992  
*Economic Review* (various issues), IMF, Washington 1992  
*FAO Yearbook* 1991 (various sections), FAO, Rome 1992  
*Industrial Statistics Yearbook* 1990, UN, New York 1992  
*Images économiques du monde* '92-'93, Paris 1992  
*International Financial Statistics*, IMF, Washington 1990  
*World Health Statistics Annual* 1991, WHO, Geneva 1990  
*Statistical Yearbook* 1990, UNESCO, Paris 1990  
*World of Learning* 1991, London 1991



Table 1 — Population: structure and dynamics

	Area (mi <sup>2</sup> /000)	Population (millions)	Density (inh./mi <sup>2</sup> )	Year	Population by age group, 1990 (0-14 yr) (15-64 yr) (over 65)			Demogr. incr. (%, 1980-89)	Birth rate (x 1000, 1989)
<b>EUROPE</b>									
Albania	11	3.3	293	90	33.5	61.2	5.3	2.0	24.7
Andorra	.17	0.05	297	86	-	-	-	3.2	12.6
Austria	32	7.8	241	91	17.5	67.4	15.1	0.1	11.0
Belgium	12	9.9	842	89	17.9	67.0	15.1	0.1	12.0
Bulgaria	43	9	210	90	19.9	66.6	13.5	0.1	12.6
ex Czechoslovakia	49	15.6	316	91	23.2	65.0	11.8	0.2	13.6
Denmark	17	5.2	306	90	16.9	67.8	15.3	-	11.0
Finland	131	5	39	89	19.5	67.2	13.3	0.4	12.0
France	210	56.6	269	90	20.1	66.2	13.7	0.4	14.0
Germany	138	80	578	90	16.2	68.8	15.0	0.1	10.0
ex GDR	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.1	12.0
ex GFR	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Great Britain (UK)	94	55.5	588	90	18.9	65.4	15.7	0.2	14.0
Greece	51	10.3	194	91	19.0	66.9	14.1	0.4	11.0
Hungary	36	10.4	290	90	19.5	67.0	13.5	-0.2	12.0
Iceland	40	0.3	6.5	90	-	-	-	1.0	18.7
Ireland	27	3.5	132	86	26.7	61.9	11.4	0.4	16.6
Italy	116	56.4	484	91	16.4	68.7	14.9	0.2	10.0
Lichtenstein	.06	0.03	466	91	-	-	-	0.9	13.2
Luxembourg	1.2	0.4	386	91	-	-	-	0.1	12.4
Malta	.12	0.3	2,922	91	-	-	-	1.0	15.2
Monaco	-	0.03	-	82	-	-	-	0.7	22.9
Netherlands	16	14.9	1,137	90	17.6	69.2	13.2	0.5	12.0
Norway	125	4.2	34	90	19.0	64.6	16.4	0.4	13.0
Poland	121	38.2	316	90	25.1	64.9	10.0	0.7	15.0
Portugal	36	10.3	290	89	20.7	66.3	13.0	0.6	12.0
Romania	92	23.2	254	90	23.8	65.9	10.3	0.4	16.0
San Marino	-	0.02	982	76	-	-	-	1.1	10.0
Spain	195	38.4	197	91	19.8	67.0	13.2	0.4	12.0
Sweden	174	8.6	49	91	17.4	64.6	18.0	0.2	13.0
Switzerland	16	6.9	430	91	17.0	68.1	14.9	0.5	12.0
ex USSR	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ex USSR (Asia)	6,497	81.76	13	90	-	-	-	-	-
ex USSR (Europe)	2,034	199.58	98	90	-	-	-	-	-
- Estonia	17	1.6	91	91	22.0	66.0	12.0	0.2	14.0
- Georgia	27	5.4	202	89	-	-	-	0.9	17.0
- Latvia	25	2.7	109	89	21.5	66.4	12.1	0.1	14.0
- Lithuania	25	3.8	148	89	22.6	66.4	11.0	0.4	15.0
<b>CIS</b>									
- Armenia	12	3.3	285	89	-	-	-	0.2	24.0
- Azerbaijan	34	7	210	89	-	-	-	2.0	26.0
- Belarus	80	10.2	127	89	-	-	-	0.3	14.0
- Kazakhstan	1,049	16.5	16	89	-	-	-	1.4	22.0
- Kyrgyzstan	77	4.3	57	89	-	-	-	2.2	29.0
- Moldova	13	4.3	334	89	-	-	-	0.8	18.0
- Russia	6,591	147.4	23	89	-	-	-	-	-
- Tajikistan	35	5.5	98	91	-	-	-	-	-
- Turkmenistan	188	3.5	18	89	-	-	-	-	-
- Ukraine	233	51.7	223	89	-	-	-	-	-
- Uzbekistan	173	21.3	124	91	-	-	-	-	-
ex Yugoslavia	-	-	-	-	23.7	67.8	9.5	-	15.0

Table 1 — Population: structure and dynamics

	Mortality (x 1000, 1989)	Infant mort. (x 1000, 1989)	Life expect. (years, 1989)	Pop. in 2000 (millions)	Pop. in 2025 by age group			Urban pop. (%, 1989)
					(0-14 yr)	(15-64 yr)	(over 65)	
<b>EUROPE</b>								
Albania	5.7	28.2	69.4	4.0	-	-	-	35.8
Andorra	4.2	13.3	74.0	-	-	-	-	64.7
Austria	11.0	8.0	76.0	8.0	15.3	60.5	24.2	58.0
Belgium	11.0	9.0	76.0	10.0	15.9	59.8	24.3	97.0
Bulgaria	11.8	14.4	68.2	9.1	17.9	61.1	21.0	67.6
<i>ex Czechoslovakia</i>	11.6	11.3	68.9	6.1	19.1	62.9	18.0	75.7
Denmark	12.0	8.0	75.0	5.0	15.3	60.2	24.5	87.0
Finland	10.0	6.0	75.0	5.0	6.3	58.8	24.9	60.0
France	10.0	7.0	77.0	59.0	17.3	60.6	22.1	74.0
Germany	11.0	8.0	75.0	-	-	-	-	86.0
<i>ex GDR</i>	12.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	82.8
<i>ex GFR</i>	-	-	-	-	14.3	58.8	26.9	-
Great Britain (U.K.)	11.0	9.0	76.0	59.0	17.5	61.2	21.3	89.0
Greece	9.0	11.0	77.0	10.0	15.4	60.6	24.0	62.0
Hungary	13.0	17.0	71.0	10.0	17.7	61.6	20.7	61.0
Iceland	6.7	4.0	75.7	0.3	-	-	-	90.7
Ireland	9.0	8.0	74.0	4.0	19.7	64.9	15.4	57.0
Italy	10.0	9.0	76.0	58.0	14.3	61.0	24.7	69.0
Lichtenstein	6.8	2.7	66.0	-	-	-	-	-
Luxembourg	10.6	9.9	71.2	0.4	-	-	-	84.3
Malta	7.7	11.3	73.8	0.4	-	-	-	85.3
Monaco	18.5	9.0	72.0	-	-	-	-	100.0
Netherlands	9.0	7.0	77.0	16.0	15.4	59.7	24.9	89.0
Norway	10.0	8.0	75.0	4.2	17.1	61.0	21.9	75.0
Poland	10.0	16.0	71.0	40.0	19.7	62.3	18.0	61.0
Portugal	9.0	13.0	75.0	11.0	16.5	63.4	20.1	33.0
Romania	10.0	27.0	71.0	25.0	20.0	63.6	16.4	52.0
San Marino	6.0	23.3	69.0	0.13	-	-	-	25.7
Spain	8.0	8.0	77.0	41.0	16.2	63.0	20.8	78.0
Sweden	12.0	6.0	77.0	9.0	17.6	59.3	23.1	84.0
Switzerland	10.0	7.0	78.0	7.0	15.8	58.3	25.9	60.0
<i>ex USSR</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	65.9
<i>ex USSR (Asia)</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>ex USSR (Europe)</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
- Estonia	12.0	25.0	66.0	-	-	-	-	65.8
- Georgia	9.0	33.0	68.0	-	-	-	-	71.0
- Latvia	13.0	19.0	65.0	-	-	-	-	56.0
- Lithuania	11.0	18.0	67.0	-	-	-	-	71.0
<b>CIS</b>								69.0
- Armenia	6.6	-	72.0	-	-	-	-	68.2
- Azerbaijan	7.0	45.0	67.0	-	-	-	-	53.0
- Belarus	11.0	20.0	62.0	-	-	-	-	67.0
- Kazakhstan	8.0	44.0	64.0	-	-	-	-	58.0
- Kyrgyzstan	7.0	35.0	64.0	-	-	-	-	38.0
- Moldova	10.0	35.0	66.0	-	-	-	-	48.0
- Russia	11.0	30.0	64.0	-	-	-	-	74.0
- Tajikistan	6.0	73.0	67.0	-	-	-	-	31.0
- Turkmenistan	7.0	93.0	62.0	-	-	-	-	45.0
- Ukraine	12.0	22.0	66.0	-	-	-	-	68.0
- Uzbekistan	6.0	64.0	69.0	-	-	-	-	40.0
<i>ex Yugoslavia</i>	9.0	-	-	15.0	18.6	62.1	19.3	-

(continues)

Table 1 — Population: structure and dynamics

	Area (mi <sup>2</sup> /000)	Population (millions)	Density (inh./mi <sup>2</sup> )	Year	Population by age group, 1990			Demogr. incr. (%, 1980-89)	Birth rate (x 1000, 1989)
					(0-14 yr)	(15-64 yr)	(over 65)		
- Bosnia-Herzegovina	20	4.4	220	91	-	-	-	0.8	14.0
- Croatia	22	4.7	218	91	-	-	-	0.1	12.0
- Macedonia	10	2	205	91	-	-	-	1.0	-
- Slovenia	8	2	251	91	-	-	-	0.3	13.0
- Yugoslavia (Fed. Rep.)	39	10.3	262	91	-	-	-	-	-
<b>ASIA</b>									
Afghanistan	252	13.7	54	82	-	-	-	3.9	48
Bahrain	27	0.5	1,886	90	-	-	-	3.5	31.3
Bangladesh	56	108	1,943	91	42.9	54.0	3.1	2.6	37.0
Bhutan	18	1.5	80	90	39.9	56.8	3.3	2.1	39.0
Brunei	2	0.2	111	89	-	-	-	2.9	27.6
Cambodia	70	8.2	119	90	34.8	62.3	2.9	2.5	41.8
China	3,681	1,160	313	91	27.0	67.2	5.8	1.4	22.0
Cyprus	3	0.7	197	90	-	-	-	1.1	18.6
Hong Kong	-	5.4	1,438	86	21.0	70.2	8.8	1.4	11.8
India	1,269	844.3	666	91	36.9	58.7	4.4	2.1	31.0
Indonesia	752	179.3	238	90	35.8	60.3	3.9	2.1	27.0
Iran	63	53.9	85	88	44.4	52.6	3.0	3.5	38.6
Iraq	168	18.3	109	89	46.5	50.8	2.7	3.6	42.0
Israel	8	4.5	560	88	31.2	59.9	8.9	1.7	22.0
Japan	144	123.6	858	90	18.4	69.7	11.9	0.6	11.1
Jordan	38	3.7	97	86	45.4	52.1	2.5	3.3	43.0
Korea, North	47	22.9	492	90	-	-	-	2.4	24.1
Korea, South	38	42.8	1,119	90	25.1	69.4	5.5	1.2	16.0
Kuwait	7	2	311	90	35.6	63.0	1.4	4.4	27.0
Laos	92	3.9	44	89	44.8	53.3	1.9	2.7	47.0
Lebanon	4	2.9	723	89	-	-	-	2.1	28.0
Malaysia	127	17.8	140	90	38.3	58.1	3.6	2.6	30.0
Maldives	12	0.21	1,860	90	-	-	-	3.4	41.2
Mongolia	604	2	3	89	40.7	55.7	3.6	3.3	37.5
Myanmar (Burma)	262	41.6	158	90	37.1	58.8	4.1	2.1	30.0
Nepal	57	19	332	90	42.0	54.9	3.1	2.6	41.0
Oman	116	2	18	90	46.3	51.3	2.4	4.7	44.0
Pakistan	307	105.4	342	89	44.2	53.0	2.8	3.2	46.0
Philippines	116	60.5	521	90	39.9	56.8	3.3	2.5	33.0
Qatar	4	0.4	96	89	-	-	-	4.0	31.8
Saudi Arabia	831	15	18	90	45.5	51.9	2.6	5.0	44.0
Singapore	2	3	* 12,435	90	23.6	70.9	5.5	1.2	18.0
Sri Lanka	25	16.4*	645	87	32.3	62.7	5.0	1.5	21.0
Syria	71	11.3	158	88	48.2	49.1	2.7	3.6	45.0
Taiwan	14	20.2	1,453	90	-	-	-	1.1	16.6
Thailand	198	54.5	275	90	33.9	63.1	3.0	1.9	32.0
Turkey	301	51	174	90	34.8	60.9	4.3	2.4	29.0
United Arab Emirates	32	1.9	60	90	30.8	67.5	1.7	4.6	23.0
Vietnam	127	63.4	497	89	39.6	55.9	4.5	2.2	31.0
Yemen	204	12	57	90	48.7	48.2	3.1	3.4	53.0
<b>AFRICA</b>									
Algeria	920	25.9	28	90	48.6	52.7	3.7	3.0	36.0
Angola	481	9.4	18	88	44.8	52.1	3.1	2.6	47.0
Burkina Faso	44	4.4	101	87	47.6	49.7	2.7	3.2	46.0

Table 1 — Population: structure and dynamics

	Mortality (x 1000, 1989)	Infant mort. (x 1000, 1989)	Life expect. (years, 1989)	Pop. in 2000 (millions)	Pop. in 2025 by age group			Urban pop. (%, 1989)
					(0-14 yr)	(15-64 yr)	(over 65)	
- Bosnia-Herzegovina	6.0	15.2	70.5	-	-	-	-	36.2
- Croatia	11.0	10.0	71.0	-	-	-	-	50.8
- Macedonia	-	35.3	70.0	-	-	-	-	33.9
- Slovenia	10.0	8.9	71.0	-	-	-	-	48.9
- Yugoslavia (Fed. Rep.)	-	24.0	70.5	-	-	-	-	47.0
<b>ASIA</b>								
Afghanistan	22.0	154.0	47.0	24.5	-	-	-	17.7
Bahrain	3.8	23.5	65.0	0.7	-	-	-	82.7
Bangladesh	14.0	106.0	51.0	145.0	26.3	69.1	4.6	16.0
Bhutan	17.0	125.0	48.0	2.0	32.8	62.9	4.3	5.0
Brunei	3.3	9.0	72.6	0.4	-	-	-	63.6
Cambodia	16.9	131.0	46.5	10.4	-	-	-	12.0
China	7.0	30.0	70.0	1,275.0	20.7	66.4	12.9	53.0
Cyprus	8.8	11.0	73.9	0.8	-	-	-	63.6
Hong Kong	5.0	5.9	74.6	-	-	-	-	100.0
India	11.0	95.0	59.0	1,007.0	24.1	68.4	7.5	27.0
Indonesia	9.0	64.0	61.0	213.0	23.3	68.2	8.5	30.0
Iran	3.9	90.0	63.0	70.0	38.8	56.9	4.3	54.0
Iraq	8.0	67.0	63.0	26.0	32.0	63.6	4.4	71.0
Israel	7.0	10.0	76.0	5.0	21.2	65.1	13.7	91.0
Japan	6.2	4.0	79.0	129.0	15.7	58.8	25.5	77.0
Jordan	6.0	53.0	67.0	6.0	32.7	63.1	4.2	67.0
Korea, North	5.6	33.3	65.6	28.2	-	-	-	59.6
Korea, South	6.0	23.0	70.0	47.0	18.0	66.0	16.0	71.0
Kuwait	3.0	15.0	74.0	3.0	21.3	64.9	13.8	95.0
Laos	17.0	105.0	49.0	6.0	37.0	59.5	3.5	18.0
Lebanon	7.0	49.2	64.7	3.6	-	-	-	80.8
Malaysia	5.0	22.0	70.0	22.0	23.6	67.4	9.0	42.0
Maldives	7.6	48.0	58.0	0.28	-	-	-	25.9
Mongolia	8.7	64.4	61.9	2.6	25.9	67.9	6.2	58.0
Myanmar (Burma)	9.0	66.0	61.0	50.0	24.0	68.5	7.5	25.0
Nepal	15.0	124.0	52.0	24.0	29.0	65.9	5.1	9.0
Oman	6.0	36.0	65.0	2.0	36.8	58.5	4.7	10.0
Pakistan	12.0	106.0	55.0	154.0	33.9	62.4	3.7	32.0
Philippines	8.0	35.0	63.0	75.0	23.9	68.4	7.7	39.0
Qatar	2.5	31.0	65.2	0.6	-	-	-	88.3
Saudi Arabia	18.0	67.0	64.0	20.7	36.3	59.1	4.6	76.0
Singapore	5.0	8.0	74.0	3.0	18.0	61.5	20.5	100.0
Sri Lanka	6.0	20.0	71.0	19.0	21.0	66.0	13.0	21.0
Syria	7.0	44.0	66.0	18.0	34.9	61.3	3.8	50.0
Taiwan	5.2	5.7	71.0	22.5	-	-	-	74.2
Thailand	7.0	28.0	66.0	64.0	21.6	68.2	10.2	22.0
Turkey	8.0	61.0	66.0	68.0	23.1	67.6	9.3	60.0
United Arab Emirates	4.0	24.0	71.0	2.0	22.2	60.7	17.1	78.0
Vietnam	9.1	61.0	59.9	83.0	24.2	68.8	7.0	20.1
Yemen	18.0	125.0	48.0	16.0	44.1	54.1	1.8	28.0
<b>AFRICA</b>								
Algeria	8.0	69.0	65.0	33.0	25.7	68.5	5.8	51.0
Angola	19.0	132.0	46.0	14.0	40.1	56.8	3.1	28.0
Benin	15.0	112.0	51.0	6.0	33.4	63.2	3.4	37.0

(continued)

Table 1 — Population: structure and dynamics

	Area (mi <sup>2</sup> /000)	Population (millions)	Density (inh./mi <sup>2</sup> )	Year	Population by age group, 1990 (0-14 yr) (15-64 yr) (over 65)			Demogr. incr. (%, 1980-89)	Birth rate (x 1000, 1989)
Botswana	224	1.2	5	89	47.4	49.2	3.4	3.7	48.5
Burkina Faso	106	8.8	83	90	45.5	51.4	3.1	2.6	47.0
Burundi	11	5.3	536	90	45.6	51.4	3.0	2.9	48.0
Cameroon	183	11.5	62	90	46.3	49.9	3.8	3.2	44.0
Cape Verde	2	0.4	236	90	-	-	-	3.2	32.1
Central African Rep.	240	2.8	13	89	42.1	54.9	3.0	2.7	42.0
Chad	496	5.4	10	88	41.9	54.5	3.6	2.4	44.0
Comoros	.73	0.46	648	90	-	-	-	3.1	47.0
Congo	132	2.3	18	90	45.2	50.9	3.9	3.4	48.0
Djibouti	9	0.5	62	88	-	-	-	3.5	19.9
Egypt	364	53	150	90	39.2	56.6	4.2	2.5	10.0
Equatorial Guinea	11	0.4	39	90	-	-	-	2.3	43.8
Eritrea	.46	3	65	88	-	-	-	-	-
Ethiopia	436	44	101	88	47.0	50.2	2.8	3.0	52.0
Gabon	103	1.3	13	78	39.1	56.0	4.9	3.7	42.0
Gambia	4	0.9	212	90	-	-	-	2.8	47.4
Ghana	92	14.9	161	90	46.8	50.3	2.9	3.4	45.0
Guinea	95	6.8	73	90	46.1	51.3	2.6	2.5	48.0
Guinea-Bissau	14	1	70	90	-	-	-	2.7	42.9
Ivory Coast	124	12.1	96	90	47.4	50.1	2.5	4.1	50.0
Kenya	225	23.9	106	89	49.9	47.3	2.8	3.9	46.0
Lesotho	12	1.8	153	89	43.4	53.1	3.5	2.7	41.0
Liberia	43	2.4	57	88	44.9	52.0	3.1	3.2	44.0
Libya	687	4.5	8	90	46.0	51.6	2.4	4.2	44.0
Madagascar	227	11.4	49	90	45.5	51.5	3.0	2.9	46.0
Malawi	46	8.5	236	91	46.7	50.7	2.6	3.4	54.0
Mali	479	8.1	18	90	46.6	50.2	3.2	2.5	50.0
Mauritania	398	1.8	5	87	4.6	52.1	43.3-	2.4	48.0
Mauritius	.77	1.1	1,373	89	29.4	65.2	5.4	1.0	18.0
Morocco	274	25	91	90	40.8	55.6	3.6	2.6	36.0
Mozambique	308	14.4	47	87	4.1	52.7	43.2	2.7	46.0
Namibia	318	1.2	3	87	45.8	51.1	3.1	3.2	44.0
Niger	458	7.5	16	90	47.2	50.2	2.6	3.4	51.0
Nigeria	357	88.5	249	91	46.4	51.0	2.6	3.4	47.0
Rwanda	10	7.1	699	91	48.0	49.5	2.5	3.2	52.0
São Tomé & Príncipe	.4	0.12	306	89	-	-	-	1.7	30.0
Senegal	76	6.8	91	88	46.7	50.6	2.7	3.0	45.0
Seychelles	.2	0.07	391	87	-	-	-	0.7	24.0
Sierra Leone	28	4.1	150	90	43.4	53.5	3.1	2.5	48.2
Somalia	246	5.1	21	80	46.0	51.0	3.0	3.0	48.0
South Africa	433	30.7	70	90	38.2	57.8	4.0	2.4	34.0
Sudan	967	24.4	26	88	45.2	52.2	2.6	2.8	44.0
Swaziland	7	0.7	114	90	-	-	-	4.5	46.8
Tanzania	362	25.6	65	88	46.7	50.3	3.0	3.1	47.0
Togo	22	3	135	84	48.1	48.8	3.1	3.5	49.0
Tunisia	63	8	124	90	37.8	58.1	4.1	2.5	30.0
Uganda	93	16.5	179	91	48.7	48.5	2.8	3.2	51.0
Zaire	905	34.1	39	90	46.4	51.0	2.6	3.1	45.0
Zambia	291	7.8	26	90	49.3	48.5	2.2	3.7	49.0
Zimbabwe	151	9.4	62	90	45.5	52.0	2.5	3.5	37.0

Table 1 — Population: structure and dynamics

	Mortality (x 1000, 1989)	Infant mort. (x 1000, 1989)	Life expect. (years, 1989)	Pop. in 2000 (millions)	Pop. in 2025 by age group			Urban pop. (%, 1989)
					(0-14 yr)	(15-64 yr)	(over 65)	
Botswana	11.6	67.0	63.0	2.0	25.3	68.9	5.8	23.8
Burkina Faso	18.0	135.0	48.0	12.0	38.5	58.7	2.8	9.0
Burundi	15.0	70.0	49.0	7.0	41.4	56.2	2.4	5.0
Cameroon	12.0	90.0	57.0	16.0	37.0	59.5	3.5	40.0
Cape Verde	7.7	51.0	63.0	0.4	-	-	-	33.1
Central African Rep.	15.0	100.0	51.0	4.0	33.7	62.6	3.7	46.0
Chad	19.0	127.0	47.0	7.0	37.2	58.9	3.9	29.0
Comoros	13.0	91.0	54.0	0.7	-	-	-	27.6
Congo	15.0	115.0	54.0	3.0	39.2	57.8	3.0	40.0
Djibouti	17.7	122.0	45.4	0.7	-	-	-	80.0
Egypt	9.1	68.0	60.0	66.0	24.4	67.6	8.0	32.0
Equatorial Guinea	19.2	127.0	44.4	0.4	-	-	-	30.2
Eritrea	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ethiopia	18.0	133.0	48.0	70.0	43.2	54.3	2.5	13.0
Gabon	15.0	98.0	53.0	1.0	38.2	57.5	4.3	45.0
Gambia	21.4	143.0	49.9	1.1	-	-	-	21.5
Ghana	13.0	86.0	55.0	20.0	32.8	63.5	3.7	33.0
Guinea	21.0	140.0	43.0	7.0	40.4	56.8	2.8	25.0
Guinea-Bissau	23.0	151.0	43.1	1.2	-	-	-	29.3
Ivory Coast	14.0	92.0	53.0	18.0	39.5	57.6	2.9	40.0
Kenya	10.0	68.0	59.0	34.0	31.9	64.6	3.5	23.0
Lesotho	12.0	96.0	56.0	2.0	29.2	66.0	4.8	20.0
Liberia	14.0	137.0	54.0	3.0	32.6	63.2	4.2	45.0
Libya	9.0	69.0	62.0	6.0	39.5	56.7	3.8	69.0
Madagascar	16.0	117.0	51.0	15.0	35.1	61.7	3.2	24.0
Malawi	19.0	147.0	48.0	12.0	43.0	54.4	2.6	12.0
Mali	19.0	167.0	48.0	11.0	41.3	56.1	2.6	19.0
Mauritania	19.0	123.0	46.0	3.0	42.4	55.0	2.6	45.0
Mauritius	6.0	21.0	70.0	1.1	18.9	66.8	14.3	41.0
Morocco	9.0	69.0	61.0	32.0	25.9	67.9	6.2	47.0
Mozambique	17.0	137.0	49.0	21.0	37.7	59.0	3.3	26.0
Namibia	12.1	106.0	55.0	1.7	31.2	64.4	4.4	27.8
Niger	20.0	130.0	45.0	11.0	44.7	52.9	2.4	19.0
Nigeria	15.0	100.0	51.0	159.0	35.2	61.3	3.5	35.0
Rwanda	17.0	118.0	49.0	10.0	44.3	53.4	2.3	7.0
São Tomé & Príncipe	8.0	70.0	64.0	0.15	-	-	-	40.5
Senegal	16.0	82.0	48.0	10.0	39.6	57.9	2.5	38.0
Seychelles	8.1	13.0	67.3	0.1	-	-	-	47.2
Sierra Leone	23.4	154.0	39.4	5.0	40.5	56.3	3.2	32.2
Somalia	18.0	128.0	48.0	9.0	39.7	57.2	3.1	36.0
South Africa	10.0	68.0	62.0	45.0	25.3	67.1	7.6	59.0
Sudan	15.0	104.0	50.0	33.0	33.7	62.5	3.8	22.0
Swaziland	12.5	118.0	53.7	1.1	-	-	-	30.4
Tanzania	17.0	112.0	49.0	37.0	37.7	59.2	3.1	31.0
Togo	14.0	9.0	54.0	5.0	35.4	61.4	3.2	25.0
Tunisia	7.0	46.0	66.0	10.0	23.7	68.3	8.0	54.0
Uganda	16.0	99.0	49.0	24.0	40.6	57.0	2.4	10.0
Zaire	14.0	94.0	53.0	47.0	34.4	62.0	3.6	39.0
Zambia	13.0	76.0	54.0	11.0	38.5	58.8	2.7	49.0
Zimbabwe	7.0	-	64.0	13.0	25.4	68.7	5.9	27.0

(continues)



Table 1 — Population: structure and dynamics

	Area (mi <sup>2</sup> /000)	Population (millions)	Density (inh./mi <sup>2</sup> )	Year	Population by age group, 1990 (0-14 yr) (15-64 yr) (over 65)			Demogr. incr. (%, 1980-89)	Birth rate (x 1000, 1989)
AMERICA									
Antigua & Barbuda	.17	0.06	386	91	-	-	-	3.1	14.1
Argentina	1,073	32.4	31	91	29.8	61.1	9.1	1.4	20.0
Bahamas	5.4	0.3	47	90	-	-	-	1.8	19.2
Barbados	.15	0.3	1,567	90	-	-	-	0.3	16.8
Belize	.01	0.18	21	87	-	-	-	1.8	36.0
Bolivia	424	7.2	18	89	42.5	54.1	3.4	2.7	42.0
Brazil	3,286	155.6	47	90	35.4	60.2	4.4	2.2	27.0
Canada	3,849	26	7	91	20.9	67.8	11.3	0.9	14.0
Chile	292	13	44	90	30.5	63.6	5.9	1.7	23.0
Colombia	441	33	75	90	35.4	60.6	4.0	2.0	25.0
Costa Rica	20	3	153	91	36.1	59.7	4.2	2.4	26.0
Cuba	43	10.6	246	89	-	-	-	1.0	17.5
Dominica	.29	0.08	285	89	-	-	-	0.3	20.8
Dominican Republic	19	7	376	89	37.3	59.3	3.4	2.3	30.0
Ecuador	110	9.6	88	90	39.5	56.9	3.6	2.7	32.0
El Salvador	8	5.2	645	85	43.7	52.7	3.6	1.4	35.0
Grenada	.13	0.1	759	88	-	-	-	2.8	32.1
Guatemala	42	8.4	199	87	45.2	51.8	3.0	2.9	39.0
Guyana	83	1	13	89	-	-	-	0.2	28.3
Haiti	11	5.7	541	89	40.0	55.9	4.1	1.9	36.0
Honduras	43	4.4	104	88	44.8	52.1	3.1	3.5	39.0
Jamaica	4	2.3	552	85	34.2	59.3	6.5	1.3	22.0
Mexico	756	81.1	106	90	37.3	59.0	3.7	2.1	28.0
Nicaragua	51	3.9	83	90	45.9	51.5	2.6	3.4	40.0
Panama	30	2.4	80	90	34.9	60.4	4.7	2.2	25.0
Paraguay	157	3.3	21	85	41.1	55.4	3.5	3.2	36.0
Peru	496	22	44	90	38.0	58.3	3.7	2.3	31.0
St. Kitts & Nevis	.10	0.04	427	90	-	-	-	3.0	22.5
St. Lucia	.23	0.1	635	90	-	-	-	2.0	24.6
St. Vincent & Grenad.	.15	0.1	718	91	-	-	-	0.1	27.0
Suriname	63	0.4	8	87	-	-	-	1.4	28.1
Trinidad & Tobago	1.93	1.2	624	90	33.9	60.6	5.5	1.7	25.0
United States	3,678	249	67	90	21.6	66.1	12.3	1.0	15.0
Uruguay	68	3.1	44	89	25.8	62.8	11.4	0.6	17.0
Venezuela	352	19.4	54	90	38.3	58.2	3.5	2.8	29.0
OCEANIA									
Australia	2,927	17.1	5	90	22.1	67.1	10.8	1.4	15.0
Fiji	7	0.7	104	90	-	-	-	1.4	26.8
Kiribati	.33	0.07	220	90	-	-	-	1.2	31.3
Marshall	.07	0.05	700	91	-	-	-	4.3	38.7
Micronesia	.03	0.1	407	91	-	-	-	-	-
Nauru	.01	0.01	1,142	89	-	-	-	0.9	21.0
New Zealand	*104	3.4	31	90	22.7	66.3	11.0	0.7	16.6
Papua New Guinea	179	3.6	20	89	41.1	56.2	2.7	2.5	36.0
Samoa	1.1	0.16	150	90	-	-	-	0.8	34.0
Solomon Islands	11	0.32	30	90	-	-	-	4.0	44.5
Tonga	.29	0.1	333.4	90	-	-	-	5.0	30.4
Tuvalu	.01	0.01	984	90	-	-	-	1.2	30.0
Vanuatu	5	0.14	30	89	-	-	-	3.3	46.7

Table 1 — Population: structure and dynamics

	Mortality (x 1000, 1989)	Infant mort. (x 1000, 1989)	Life expect. (years, 1989)	Pop. in 2000 (millions)	Pop. in 2025 by age group			Urban pop. (%, 1989)
					(0-24 yr)	(15-64 yr)	(over 65)	
<b>AMERICA</b>								
Antigua & Barbuda	4.6	21.2	70.0	-	-	-	-	32.0
Argentina	9.0	30.0	71.0	36.0	21.5	65.0	13.5	86.0
Bahamas	5.3	21.1	67.0	0.3	-	-	-	50.1
Barbados	8.6	13.2	71.9	0.3	-	-	-	44.7
Belize	6.0	36.0	67.0	0.23	-	-	-	51.6
Bolivia	13.0	106.0	54.0	10.0	31.1	64.6	4.3	51.0
Brazil	8.0	59.0	66.0	178.0	22.8	66.9	10.3	74.0
Canada	7.0	7.0	77.0	29.0	16.9	60.7	22.4	77.0
Chile	6.0	19.0	72.0	15.0	21.3	65.7	13.0	85.0
Colombia	6.0	38.0	69.0	38.0	22.2	67.9	9.9	69.0
Costa Rica	4.0	17.0	75.0	3.0	22.1	66.3	11.6	47.0
Cuba	6.5	11.1	72.7	11.5	-	-	-	72.8
Dominica	5.2	14.0	73.0	-	-	-	-	-
Dominican Republic	6.0	61.0	67.0	9.0	23.2	68.0	8.8	59.0
Ecuador	7.0	61.0	66.0	13.0	24.0	68.4	7.6	55.0
El Salvador	8.0	55.0	63.0	6.0	27.7	67.4	4.9	44.0
Grenada	8.1	15.9	69.0	-	-	-	-	-
Guatemala	8.0	55.0	63.0	12.0	28.9	66.4	4.7	39.0
Guyana	7.3	41.0	64.0	0.8	-	-	-	31.1
Haiti	13.0	94.0	55.0	8.0	31.0	64.0	5.0	28.0
Honduras	8.0	66.0	65.0	7.0	28.1	66.9	5.0	43.0
Jamaica	7.0	16.0	73.0	3.0	20.9	67.9	11.2	52.0
Mexico	6.0	40.0	69.0	105.0	22.9	68.3	8.8	72.0
Nicaragua	7.0	57.0	64.0	5.0	28.4	66.4	5.2	59.0
Panama	5.0	22.0	73.0	3.0	21.9	67.2	10.9	53.0
Paraguay	6.0	32.0	67.0	6.0	30.2	63.7	6.1	47.0
Peru	9.0	79.0	62.0	26.0	23.8	68.4	7.8	70.0
St. Kitts & Nevis	11.0	22.2	64.0	-	-	-	-	45.0
St. Lucia	6.0	15.9	68.3	0.2	-	-	-	46.4
St. Vincent & Grenad.	6.0	23.3	69.0	0.13	-	-	-	25.7
Suriname	6.2	33.0	63.4	0.5	-	-	-	65.2
Trinidad & Tobago	6.0	15.0	71.0	1.3	22.2	65.8	12.0	68.0
United States	9.0	10.0	76.0	270.0	18.0	61.1	20.9	75.0
Uruguay	10.0	22.0	73.0	3.0	20.0	63.9	16.1	85.0
Venezuela	5.0	35.0	70.0	24.0	23.3	67.5	9.2	84.0
<b>OCEANIA</b>								
Australia	7.0	8.0	77.0	20.0	18.1	63.0	18.9	86.0
Fiji	5.0	27.0	68.3	0.9	-	-	-	38.7
Kiribati	8.1	110.0	51.0	-	-	-	-	34.8
Marshall Islands	5.2	30.3	71.0	-	-	-	-	-
Micronesia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nauru	5.0	41.0	64.0	-	-	-	-	-
New Zealand	8.0	10.0	74.0	4.0	18.7	62.7	18.6	84.0
Papua New Guinea	11.0	59.0	54.0	5.0	27.6	67.8	4.6	16.0
Samoa	7.0	48.0	64.0	0.18	-	-	-	21.2
Solomon Islands	9.9	74.0	60.0	0.43	-	-	-	15.7
Tonga	7.2	49.0	61.0	0.10	-	-	-	30.7
Tirolia	10.0	35.0	60.0	-	-	-	-	34.2
Vanuatu	7.8	55.0	61.0	0.19	-	-	-	18.4

Table 2 — Population: social indicators

	Food (daily cal. per capita, 1989)	Energy (bbl petrol. per capita, 1990)	Health (pop. per physician, 1988)	Illiteracy (%, 1991)	(Preschool)	Student distribution, 1991 (Primary level) (Secondary level)		(Higher level)	Education (% of public expend., 1990)
<b>EUROPE</b>									
Albania	2,657	7.25	574	25.0	125,312 (a)	550,656 (a)	202,864 (a)	22,059	—
Andorra	—	—	441	—	1,925	3,453	2,516	—	24.4
Austria	3,478	22.03	390	0.0	192,946	367,006	601,140	199,845	12.8
Belgium	3,942	17.66	330	1.0	371,509 (a)	728,718 (c)	805,647 (c)	254,329 (c)	1.7
Bulgaria	3,650	31.10	324	4.5	317,559	991,626	397,362	157,861	—
<i>ex Czechoslovakia</i>	3,540	31.96	317	1.0	636,622	1,961,742	856,971	186,142	—
Denmark	3,577	22.76	400	1.0	51,814 (b)	355,311	483,502 (b)	126,662 (b)	1.2
Finland	3,170	35.54	440	1.0	49,772	389,067	410,582	155,313	10.6
France	3,310	24.19	320	1.2	2,535,955 (b)	4,163,161	5,398,599	1,587,202	21.0
Germany	3,514	—	380	1.0	1,645,959 (b)	2,473,700	6,219,158 (b)	1,686,725 (b)	18.3
Germany ( <i>ex GFR</i> )	—	21.96	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Great Britain (UK)	3,252	22.93	—	1.0	716,000	4,414,966	4,365,912	1,113,341	14.3
Greece	3,699	13.16	350	6.8	155,246	868,335	840,020	189,173	—
Hungary	3,601	20.20	310	1.1	392,273	1,183,573	487,208	100,868	2.1
Iceland	3,661	—	373	1.0	4,355	25,525	29,059	5,407	24.9
Ireland	3,699	16.69	680	1.0	135,923	423,662	341,800	81,133	12.4
Italy	3,566	17.32	230	3.0	1,566,364	3,140,113	5,245,132	1,358,254	11.3
Lichtenstein	—	—	948	—	—	1,754	1,707	—	—
Luxembourg	3,901	—	527	0.0	7,965	23,375 (c)	2,246 (c)	709 (d)	2.2
Malta	3,258	—	451	4.0	11,322	36,726	30,210	1,682	9.4
Monaco	—	—	366	—	887	1,796	2,909	—	—
Netherlands	3,354	32.22	450	1.0	399,453 (f)	1,428,577	1,289,368	415,847	11.6
Norway	2,848	57.13	660	0.0	128,237	310,600	375,095	114,855 (b)	10.6
Poland	3,451	21.49	490	1.3	1,316,699	5,141,434	1,829,747	505,727	—
Portugal	3,382	9.48	410	16.0	128,877	1,003,569	544,943	156,701	8.2
Romania	3,357	22.79	570	2.0	835,890	2,891,810	1,652,442	164,507	51.0
San Marino	—	—	375	—	773	1,227	1,204	—	10.3
Spain	3,543	13.84	320	7.2	1,054,241 (c)	3,246,655 (c)	4,798,337 (c)	1,036,439 (c)	12.5
Sweden	3,007	39.92	390	0.5	307,816	578,540	597,971	184,815	1.0
Switzerland	3,547	24.54	700	1.0	136,845	394,061	371,097	132,753	—
<i>ex USSR</i>	3,382	—	—	1.0	12,718,000	25,040,000	21,124,000	527,300	—
- Estonia	3,386	—	218	1.0	—	—	—	—	—
- Georgia	—	—	169	—	—	—	—	—	—
- Latvia	3,386	—	201	1.0	—	—	—	—	—
- Lithuania	3,386	—	217	1.0	—	—	—	—	—
<b>CIS</b>									
- Armenia	—	—	233	—	—	—	—	—	—
- Azerbaijan	—	—	254	—	—	—	—	—	—
- Belarus	—	—	247	—	—	—	—	—	—
- Kazakhstan	—	—	243	—	—	—	—	—	—
- Kyrgyzstan	—	—	272	—	—	—	—	—	—
- Moldova	—	—	250	—	—	—	—	—	—
- Russia	—	—	213	—	—	—	—	—	—
- Tajikistan	—	—	369	—	—	—	—	—	—
- Turkmenistan	—	—	280	—	—	—	—	—	—
- Ukraine	—	—	227	—	—	—	—	—	—
- Uzbekistan	—	—	279	—	—	—	—	—	—
Vatican City	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	9,775	—

(continues)

Table 2 — Population: social indicators

	Food (daily cal. per capita, 1989)	Energy (bbl petrol. per capita, 1990)	Health (pop. per physician, 1988)	Illiteracy (%, 1991)	(Preschool)	Student distribution, 1991			(Higher level)	Education (% of public expend., 1990)
					(Primary level)	(Secondary level)				
<i>ex Yugoslavia</i>	3,505	15.15	—	—	435,932	1,406,630	2,361,660	342,643	—	—
- Bosnia-Herzegovina	—	—	555	14.5	—	—	—	—	—	—
- Croatia	—	—	385	5.6	—	—	—	—	—	—
- Macedonia	—	—	417	10.9	—	—	—	—	—	—
- Slovenia	—	—	385	0.8	—	—	—	—	—	—
- Yugoslavia (Fed. Rep.)	—	—	500	10.2	—	—	—	—	—	—
<b>ASIA</b>										
Afghanistan	2,110	0.57	4,797	76.3	19,660 (b)	726,287	136,898	19,509 (c)	—	—
Bahrain	—	—	713	22.6	8,994	63,179	41,038	4,894 (c)	7.7	—
Bangladesh	1,925	0.36	6,730	64.7	2,317,181 (b)	11,285,445	3,340,120 (b)	370,900	—	—
Brunei	2,839	—	1,469	15.0	8,634	39,862	17,527 (c)	945	3.4	—
Cambodia	2,162	0.37	27,000	52.0	35,495	1,504,843	145,730	586	—	—
China	2,632	3.76	1,010	27.4	18,476,600	123,731,000	50,541,400	2,173,112	—	—
Cyprus	3,054	—	484	5.5	22,008	60,841	43,219	5,852	6.7	—
Hong Kong	2,883	10.80	933	12.0	214,700 (b)	534,309 (c)	458,444 (c)	76,844 (f)	9.4	—
India	2,104	1.45	2,520	51.8	1,353,023	97,318,114	30,531,881	4,470,844 (e)	1.7	—
Indonesia	2,670	1.71	9,460	22.4	1,568,450	30,130,564	11,693,361	980,162 (f)	1.8	—
Iran	3,100	6.45	2,840	38.2	217,496	8,817,145	4,668,442	315,657 (b)	7.1	—
Iraq	2,962	4.87	1,740	54.1	85,096	3,023,132	1,166,859	209,818	—	—
Israel	3,138	12.89	350	8.2	318,160	702,472	291,754	117,454	3.9	—
Japan	2,848	22.41	660	1.0	2,037,614	9,606,627	11,143,930	2,683,035	—	—
Jordan	2,907	6.25	1,120	20.0	42,223	590,275	384,279	65,974 (b)	4.1	—
Korea, North	3,172	11.94	370	10.0	728,000	1,543,000	2,468,000	390,000	—	—
Korea, South	2,878	—	1,160	7.3	414,532	4,868,520	4,559,557	1,691,429	2.0	—
Kuwait	3,132	40.34	640	25.0	52,105	185,464	265,001	26,080	7.4	—
Laos	2,637	0.25	1,360	16.1	27,298	558,852	135,583	5,322	—	—
Lebanon	3,275	6.09	771	23.0	129,590	399,029	287,310	70,510 (f)	3.1	—
Malaysia	2,686	6.13	1,930	27.4	331,520	2,397,816	1,480,490	108,091 (b)	—	—
Maldives	2,140	—	7,732	9.6	2,327	39,775	2,756 (g)	—	8.0	—
Mongolia	2,841	8.03	390	10.5	61,668 (d)	166,200	273,900 (f)	39,072 (d)	—	—
Myanmar (Burma)	2,572	0.52	3,740	21.5	—	5,046,471	1,358,788	202,381	5.0	—
Nepal	2,078	0.16	30,220	79.3	16,864 (f)	2,108,739	612,943	95,240	5.0	—
Oman	—	16.66	1,700	59.0	3,050	247,128	85,230	4,285 (b)	5.1	—
Pakistan	2,200	1.47	2,910	74.4	—	8,614,857	3,637,466	315,793 (e)	—	—
Philippines	2,260	1.35	1,090	11.3	321,459	10,284,861	3,961,639	1,579,938 (b)	6.0	—
Qatar	—	—	568	24.3	6,105	49,657	28,685	6,469	0.8	—
Saudi Arabia	2,832	31.65	740	42.8	68,426	1,694,394	654,202 (d)	123,848	—	—
Singapore	2,892	35.76	1,310	12.4	17,858	257,833	180,817	35,192 (g)	5.2	—
Sri Lanka	2,319	1.13	5,520	14.0	—	2,114,800	1,088,089	61,628 (d)	6.2	—
Syria	3,168	5.74	1,260	—	75,374 (b)	2,357,981	923,532	205,866	1.2	—
Taiwan	2,749	—	965	7.8	—	2,313,240	1,250,840	428,576	1.4	—
Thailand	2,287	2.21	6,290	11.2	84,763 (a)	6,676,562	2,071,107 (a)	952,012	6.3	—
Turkey	3,080	5.39	1,390	24.0	112,053	6,848,083	3,620,982	685,500	2.9	—
United Arab Emirates	3,552	68.40	1,020	27.0	47,007	215,532	95,669	7,655 (b)	6.9	—
Vietnam	2,277	0.63	3,140	12.4	1,701,681	8,125,836	3,200,912	114,701	—	—
Yemen	2,322	1.47	—	81.1	322	1,291,372	420,697	23,457 (b)	—	—
<b>AFRICA</b>										
Algeria	2,726	12.30	2,340	42.5	—	4,189,152	2,162,469 (a)	180,756 (b)	—	—

(continued)

Table 2 — Population: social indicators

	Food (daily cal. per capita, 1989)	Energy (bbl petrol. per capita, 1990)	Health (pop. per physician, 1988)	Illiteracy (%, 1991)	(Preschool)	Student distribution, 1991			Education (% of public expend., 1990)
						(Primary level)	(Secondary level)	(Higher level)	
Angola	1,725	1.28	17,790	72.0	191,882	1,038,126	170,280	4,493 (f)	—
Benin	2,145	0.29	15,940	73.0	13,433 (b)	482,451 (b)	102,171 (d)	8,883	—
Botswana	2,251	2.67	7,185	29.2	—	296,370	44,306 (b)	2,731 (e)	5.5
Burkina Faso	2,061	0.11	26,525	81.8	7,655	472,979	91,336	4,498 (b)	5.2
Burundi	2,253	0.13	21,030	50.0	2,140 (c)	560,095 (b)	31,413 (c)	3,080	—
Cameroon	2,161	0.92	—	43.0	92,966	1,946,301	457,161	26,783 (b)	3.4
Cape Verde	2,550	—	4,208	52.6	4,523	65,377 (a)	7,008	—	—
Central African Rep.	1,980	0.19	—	62.3	11,677 (c)	297,457	45,340	3,075	—
Chad	1,852	0.11	38,360	82.2	—	492,231	58,570 (b)	2,983 (b)	—
Comoros	2,059	—	11,237	53.7	17,778	64,737 (c)	21,168 (d)	—	6.5
Congo	2,512	1.34	—	43.4	5,983	492,595	200,466 (b)	10,310 (b)	—
Djibouti	—	—	5,427	0.0	220	31,378	8,902 (b)	—	8.2
Egypt	3,213	3.76	770	51.6	177,740	6,155,100	4,998,615	764,539 (b)	2.5
Equatorial Guinea	—	—	61,000	68.5	—	61,532	4,368 (h)	1,140 (i)	—
Ethiopia	1,658	0.13	78,770	95.2	87,355 (b)	2,855,846 (b)	882,243 (b)	25,562	3.6
Gabon	2,396	7.28	2,790	39.3	—	195,049 (c)	48,274 (c)	4,077	—
Gambia	2,339	—	9,900	72.8	—	75,177	15,913	—	8.0
Ghana	2,209	0.43	20,460	39.6	323,406	1,703,074	793,388	16,350 (i)	9.0
Guinea	2,042	0.46	—	71.7	—	310,064	78,659	5,923 (c)	—
Guinea-Bissau	2,543	—	7,164	63.5	754	79,035 (b)	6,330 (b)	404 (b)	5.4
Ivory Coast	2,365	1.09	—	46.2	8,570	1,214,511	266,801 (f)	19,660 (f)	—
Kenya	1,973	0.63	10,050	40.8	660,473 (e)	5,123,581 (b)	563,440 (b)	31,287	5.9
Lesotho	2,307	—	18,610	26.4	—	351,632	47,212 (a)	5,577 (b)	—
Liberia	2,270	1.06	9,350	77.6	70,507 (f)	80,048 (d)	54,623	5,095	—
Libya	3,384	21.38	690	36.2	15,028 (e)	788,780 (e)	430,885 (e)	30,000 (e)	—
Madagascar	2,101	0.25	9,780	19.8	—	1,512,322	348,922	37,046	—
Malawi	2,009	0.26	11,340	58.8	—	1,212,836 (b)	29,588	4,951	73.0
Mali	2,181	0.15	25,390	89.9	—	324,369	66,431 (c)	5,536 (d)	2.1
Mauritania	2,528	0.72	11,900	72.0	—	158,800	39,154	5,808	—
Mauritius	2,679	2.48	1,900	17.0	10,617 (h)	137,929	78,776	2,179	9.2
Morocco	2,820	1.55	4,760	29.3	787,472	2,163,185	1,336,999	239,923 (a)	3.0
Mozambique	1,632	0.53	—	83.4	45,100 (d)	1,287,681	116,928	2,335	—
Namibia	2,183	—	4,450	27.5	—	—	—	—	—
Niger	2,340	0.25	39,670	86.1	11,038	344,848 (a)	65,816 (b)	4,506 (a)	—
Nigeria	2,039	0.87	6,440	57.6	—	12,712,087	2,723,791	266,508 (d)	—
Rwanda	1,786	0.26	35,090	50.6	8,000 (c)	1,058,529	65,323	3,389	—
São Tomé & Príncipe	2,529	—	2,813	—	—	—	—	—	—
Senegal	1,989	0.98	—	77.5	15,964	682,925	173,044	13,354 (e)	—
Seychelles	2,117	—	1,397	42.7	3,456	14,595	4,052	144	13.1
Sierra Leone	1,813	0.48	13,150	79.3	—	399,018	101,056	2,334 (c)	7.5
Somalia	1,736	0.40	16,080	45.2	1,358 (e)	196,496 (e)	45,686 (e)	15,672 (d)	—
South Africa	3,035	15.39	—	20.7	—	5,045,000	1,747,000	247,696	—
Sudan	1,996	0.36	10,190	78.4	235,943 (e)	1,766,738 (d)	556,587 (e)	60,134	—
Swaziland	2,554	—	7,971	32.2	1,880	157,208	33,670 (c)	2,363 (c)	9.1
Tanzania	2,151	0.24	24,980	15.0	—	3,258,601	145,748	5,254	—
Togo	2,113	0.32	8,700	60.9	10,483 (c)	569,388	109,791	7,486 (b)	5.2
Tunisia	2,964	3.27	2,150	34.7	43,765	1,376,519	546,953	62,638	5.9
Uganda	2,013	0.17	—	51.7	—	2,632,764	260,069	14,194	—
Zaire	2,034	0.45	12,940	38.8	—	4,356,516	1,066,351	61,422	4.3

(continues)

Table 3 — Population: social indicators

	Food (daily cal. per capita, 1989)	Energy (bbl./petrol. per capita, 1990)	Health (pop. per physician, 1988)	Literacy (%, 1991)	Student distribution, 1991				Education (% of public expend., 1990)
					(Preschool)	(Primary level)	(Secondary level)	(Higher level)	
Zambia	2,026	2.38	7,150	31.4	6,022	1,426,135 (b)	170,299 (b)	14,465	7.4
Zimbabwe	2,232	3.30	6,700	24.0	—	2,214,939 (a)	651,771 (a)	49,361	7.6
<b>AMERICA</b>									
Antigua & Barbuda	2,178	—	1,606	42.5	677 (g)	11,394	29,765	—	2.5
Argentina	3,118	11.33	370	4.7	798,235 (b)	4,998,963 (b)	1,862,325 (c)	958,542 (c)	2.0
Bahamas	2,680	—	809	5.0	—	29,518 (d)	29,765 (d)	5,305	13.4
Barbados	3,188	—	1,042	2.0	3,052 (h)	30,161 (f)	28,695 (f)	5,227 (f)	11.0
Belize	2,627	—	1,997	7.0	2,100	40,729	7,560	113	3.3
Bolivia	2,086	1.62	1,540	22.5	112,086	1,225,843	207,824	140,890	6.6
Brazil	2,709	5.76	1,080	18.9	3,530,000	27,640,000	3,441,000	1,518,904	6.1
Canada	3,447	62.96	510	4.4	475,000	2,345,000	2,254,654	1,322,917	5.5
Chile	2,584	5.58	1,230	6.6	278,443 (a)	1,991,178	742,010 (a)	234,973 (b)	5.9
Colombia	2,561	5.10	1,240	14.0	328,425	4,205,657	2,282,316	474,787	—
Costa Rica	2,782	3.91	960	7.0	43,641	422,102	123,052	77,576	21.2
Cuba	3,103	—	303	6.0	143,705 (b)	885,576	1,073,119	243,366	—
Dominica	2,884	—	2,619	5.6	2,192 (a)	12,600	6,308 (d)	68 (b)	5.7
Dominican Republic	2,357	2.11	1,760	18.0	22,257	1,032,055	463,511 (e)	123,748 (e)	—
Ecuador	2,338	4.26	820	14.0	108,348 (c)	1,822,252 (c)	771,928 (c)	206,541	9.8
El Salvador	2,415	1.47	2,330	30.0	72,238 (b)	1,016,181	95,078	80,818	7.4
Grenada	2,959	—	1,355	15.0	3,584	20,976	6,497	535 (g)	6.9
Guatemala	2,352	1.08	2,180	53.0	144,312 (c)	1,149,134	241,083 (c)	51,860 (d)	—
Guyana	2,423	—	6,309	3.6	25,316 (d)	112,581 (d)	76,012 (d)	3,700	5.7
Haiti	1,911	0.33	7,130	53.0	21,000 (f)	780,660 (c)	143,758 (e)	6,288 (e)	—
Honduras	2,164	1.25	1,910	29.0	52,831 (d)	863,313 (b)	179,444 (d)	44,849 (a)	—
Jamaica	2,572	3.86	2,050	1.6	136,671	399,023	241,000 (b)	12,054 (d)	—
Mexico	3,135	8.18	1,242	12.0	2,734,064	14,508,116	6,704,647	1,314,027 (a)	1.7
Nicaragua	2,361	1.64	1,900	13.0	64,916	595,612	161,212	26,878 (c)	—
Panama	2,468	10.66	1,800	12.0	32,046 (e)	390,277	190,166	51,086 (b)	19.8
Paraguay	2,816	1.46	1,460	9.9	30,019	686,877	155,434	31,117	3.0
Peru	2,269	3.20	1,340	15.0	603,757	4,019,483	1,746,182	743,569	5.5
St. Kitts & Nevis	2,282	—	1,593	10.0	1,610	7,473	4,197 (f)	194 (c)	3.0
St. Lucia	2,760	—	2,636	10.0	4,500	33,148	7,013 (d)	384 (c)	—
St. Vincent & Grenad.	2,764	—	2,874	—	—	—	—	—	—
Suriname	2,775	—	1,798	—	16,570 (d)	61,570 (b)	35,878 (d)	3,402 (d)	3.7
Trinidad & Tobago	2,960	37.36	950	4.0	5,049	189,623	99,615 (c)	6,282 (e)	—
United States	3,666	49.80	470	4.5	6,515,000 (d)	27,117,000 (d)	13,913,000 (d)	13,824,592	12.9
Uruguay	2,770	5.18	510	3.8	61,187 (b)	351,984 (b)	243,135 (b)	32,627	4.5
Venezuela	2,547	16.24	780	11.9	555,933 (b)	2,967,110 (d)	1,138,916 (b)	500,295 (b)	—
<b>OCEANIA</b>									
Australia	3,322	31.71	440	0.5	179,344	1,555,230	1,276,969	441,076	9.9
Fiji	2,785	—	2,649	13.0	3,400 (d)	143,552	46,457 (d)	2,313 (e)	9.1
Kiribati	2,952	—	4,104	10.0	—	14,709	2,903 (a)	—	19.9
Marshall Islands	—	—	2,226	13.7	—	—	—	—	—
Micronesia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Nauru	—	—	700	1.0	383	1,431	482	—	—
New Zealand	3,393	31.27	522	0.0	73,380	312,773	341,249	120,821	12.7
Papua New Guinea	2,236	1.47	6,070	57.7	1,108	417,818	67,007	6,397 (d)	9.4

(continued)



Table 2 — Population: social indicators

	Food (daily cal. per capita, 1989)	Energy (bbl petrol. per capita, 1990)	Health (pop. per physician, 1988)	Illiteracy (%, 1991)	(Preschool)	Student distribution, 1991		(Higher level)	Education (% of public expend., 1990)
						(Primary level)	(Secondary level)		
Samoa	2,474	—	3,685	1.0	2,324	37,833	20,604 (d)	562 (g)	16.7
Solomon Islands	2,140	—	9,852	45.9	—	39,563	1,144	—	4.7
Tonga	2,964	—	2,130	7.2	568	16,522	14,749	705 (e)	4.2
Tuvalu	—	—	2,141	4.5	—	1,364	265 (i)	—	—
Vanuatu	2,533	—	7,948	7.1	1,092 (i)	24,471	2,904 (g)	—	5.5

(a) = 1989; (b) = 1988; (c) = 1987; (d) = 1986; (e) = 1985; (f) = 1984; (g) = 1983; (h) = 1982; (i) = 1981

Table 3 — Economic summary: labor and growth

	Econ. active population (%, 1986)	GNP (US\$/'000, 1990)	Per cap. GNP (US\$, 1990)	GNP distribution (%) per economic sector, 1990			Inflation (avg. rate, (1980-89)	Consumer price changes (1985 = 100)	Year
				(primary)	(secondary)	(tertiary)			
<b>EUROPE</b>									
Albania	74.50	2.40	730	35.0	40.0	25.0	—	—	—
Andorra	74.30	0.70	14,000	—	—	—	—	—	—
Austria	66.60	159.10	20,900	4.4	39.3	56.3	3.8	111.3	90
Belgium	68.00	194.80	19,620	2.0	31.0	67.0	4.5	111.0	90
Bulgaria	66.00	40.00	4,500	16.0	52.0	32.0	1.4	106.7	89
ex Czechoslovakia	88.20	49.22	3,140	8.0	60.0	32.0	1.6	112.3	90
Denmark	83.00	130.90	25,570	5.5	27.0	67.5	6.0	124.1	91
Finland	76.60	139.30	28,140	6.1	29.5	64.4	7.0	132.6	91
France	65.50	1,191.40	21,230	3.3	29.6	67.1	6.5	120.0	91
Germany	—	—	—	3.0	45.0	52.0	—	—	—
Germany (ex GFR)	67.90	1,490.20	24,000	—	—	—	2.7	130.2	91
Great Britain (UK)	75.60	978.40	17,160	2.0	38.0	60.0	6.1	133.4	89
Greece	65.00	68.00	6,800	16.0	27.0	57.0	18.2	264.7	91
Hungary	77.50	40.50	3,850	15.0	40.0	45.0	7.5	198.7	90
Iceland	80.00	5.70	22,800	16.0	36.0	48.0	34.8	268.9	91
Ireland	59.20	42.80	11,890	9.6	35.0	55.4	7.8	121.4	91
Italy	59.10	1,089.10	18,920	6.0	39.0	55.0	10.3	131.7	90
Lichtenstein	68.60	1.02	34,000	—	—	—	—	120.9	90
Luxembourg	60.60	8.80	23,340	2.4	31.6	64.0	4.4	109.0	90
Malta	45.90	2.34	6,400	4.0	31.0	65.0	2.0	107.4	90
Monaco	64.60	0.70	23,000	—	—	—	—	—	—
Netherlands	66.70	276.90	18,640	5.1	33.7	61.2	1.9	107.7	91
Norway	77.60	105.80	24,950	5.0	34.0	61.0	5.6	140.0	91
Poland	82.40	143.80	3,770	18.0	53.0	29.0	38.1	9,680.2	91
Portugal	68.90	59.10	5,630	9.0	40.0	51.0	19.1	190.3	91
Romania	66.00	78.00	3,400	20.0	60.0	20.0	—	274.4	91
San Marino	91.20	0.50	20,000	—	—	—	—	—	—
Spain	64.00	491.10	12,510	4.9	34.4	59.7	9.4	144.9	91
Sweden	82.30	230.20	27,180	2.6	30.0	67.4	7.4	147.8	91
Switzerland	62.90	223.40	33,340	3.5	39.5	57.0	3.6	119.8	91
ex USSR	82.20	—	—	—	—	—	—	114.0	90
Latvia	—	2.80	1,867	20.2	61.0	18.8	—	146.0	90
Georgia	—	6.40	1,185	—	—	—	—	—	—

(continues)

Table 3 — Economic summary: labor and growth

	Econ. active population (%, 1986)	GNP (US\$/1000, 1990)	Per cap. GNP (US\$, 1990)	GNP distribution (%) per economic sector, 1990			Inflation (avg. rate, 1988-89)	Consumer price changes (1985 = 100)	Year
				(primary)	(secondary)	(tertiary)			
- Latvia	-	4.40	1,692	-	-	-	-	107.7	89
- Lithuania	-	5.60	1,514	-	-	-	-	-	-
CIS									
- Armenia	-	3.60	1,091	-	-	-	-	-	-
- Azerbaijan	-	6.80	958	-	-	-	-	-	-
- Belarus	-	16.80	1,647	-	-	-	-	-	-
- Kazakhstan	-	17.20	1,035	-	-	-	-	-	-
- Kyrgyzstan	-	3.20	744	-	-	-	-	-	-
- Moldova	-	4.80	1,116	-	-	-	-	-	-
- Russia	-	244.00	1,649	-	-	-	-	-	-
- Tajikistan	-	3.20	615	-	-	-	-	-	-
- Turkmenistan	-	3.20	889	-	-	-	-	-	-
- Ukraine	-	64.80	1,251	-	-	-	-	-	-
- Uzbekistan	-	13.20	650	-	-	-	-	-	-
ex Yugoslavia	68.00	-	-	-	-	-	96.9	245,183.0	88
- Bosnia-Herzegovina	-	13.32	3,000	8.0	55.0	37.0	-	-	-
- Croatia	-	32.80	7,000	5.0	45.0	50.0	-	-	-
- Macedonia	-	7.00	3,500	14.0	47.0	39.0	-	-	-
- Slovenia	-	19.00	10,000	-	-	-	-	-	-
- Yugoslavia (Fed. Rep.)	-	41.35	4,000	11.0	45.0	44.0	-	-	-
ASIA									
Afghanistan	49.10	5.50	330	33.0	7.0	60.0	-	344.7	90
Bahrain	65.30	3.90	7,040	1.2	43.9	54.9	-	98.6	90
Bangladesh	53.00	22.58	200	38.0	20.0	42.0	10.6	158.1	90
Bhutan	55.00	0.27	190	50.0	18.0	32.0	-	140.0	89
Brunei	61.10	5.04	19,400	2.0	76.0	22.0	-	10,570.0	89
Cambodia	71.40	1.56	190	80.0	5.0	15.0	-	-	-
China	76.80	416.00	370	31.0	49.0	20.0	5.8	163.4	-
Cyprus	62.20	4.76	6,800	8.0	27.0	65.0	6.0	122.6	91
Hong Kong	63.10	70.00	12,180	1.0	26.0	73.0	7.1	140.8	90
India	56.00	294.81	350	30.0	30.0	40.0	7.7	149.7	90
Indonesia	68.60	101.15	560	20.0	38.0	42.0	8.3	142.9	90
Iran	51.30	139.12	2,450	18.0	34.0	48.0	13.5	258.0	90
Iraq	43.10	31.00	1,750	15.0	40.0	45.0	-	140.2	88
Israel	51.50	50.87	10,970	9.0	41.0	50.0	117.1	366.0	90
Japan	63.30	2,894.00	23,340	3.0	40.1	56.9	1.3	110.4	91
Jordan	39.00	3.60	1,150	5.0	20.0	75.0	-	155.4	90
Korea, North	61.80	23.10	1,064	25.0	35.0	40.0	-	130.2	90
Korea, South	61.80	237.00	5,530	8.0	41.0	51.0	5.0	219.0	90
Kuwait	56.10	20.00	10,000	1.0	45.0	54.0	-2.7	106.6	89
Laos	84.20	0.85	200	61.0	9.0	30.0	-	-	-
Lebanon	39.90	2.60	960	10.0	15.0	75.0	-	1,030.0	87
Malaysia	66.30	41.36	2,390	18.0	40.0	42.0	1.5	109.3	90
Maldives	50.20	0.13	641	12.0	14.0	74.0	6.4	-	-
Mongolia	82.20	0.70	300	18.0	32.0	50.0	-	99.0	89
Myanmar (Burma)	54.00	9.13	220	32.0	15.0	53.0	2.1	236.8	90
Nepal	82.95	3.15	170	48.0	25.0	25.0	9.1	169.2	90
Oman	60.90	10.80	7,200	3.0	58.0	39.0	-6.0	125.0	90

(continues)

Table 3 — Economic summary: labor and growth

	Econ. active population (%, 1986)	GNP (US\$/'000, 1990)	Per cap. GNP (US\$, 1990)	GNP distribution (%) per economic sector, 1990			Inflation (avg. rate, (1986-89)	Consumer price changes (1985 = 100)	Year
				(primary)	(secondary)	(tertiary)			
Pakistan	53.30	41.00	366	23.0	28.0	49.0	6.7	147.8	91
Philippines	66.00	46.20	750	24.0	33.0	43.0	14.8	166.8	91
Qatar	76.00	6.20	16,550	1.0	52.0	47.0	-	116.1	90
Saudi Arabia	51.50	98.00	6,853	4.0	65.0	31.0	-4.4	99.2	90
Singapore	63.10	33.60	12,460	1.0	29.0	70.0	1.5	110.2	91
Sri Lanka	61.50	8.28	490	27.0	27.0	46.0	13.5	201.6	91
Syria	46.70	12.40	990	16.0	40.0	44.0	15.0	388.4	90
Taiwan	73.30	159.50	7,895	4.0	49.0	47.0	-	115.5	90
Thailand	76.20	79.80	1,395	16.0	33.0	51.0	3.2	121.0	90
Turkey	61.60	107.90	1,950	15.4	38.9	47.7	41.4	857.9	90
United Arab Emirates	76.70	32.80	18,767	1.0	51.0	48.0	1.1	-	-
Vietnam	79.90	13.40	200	48.0	27.0	25.0	-	-	-
Yemen	41.20	7.00	610	20.0	33.0	47.0	-	-	-
AFRICA									
Algeria	44.30	51.58	2,060	12.0	45.0	43.0	5.2	163.0	90
Angola	71.80	7.50	750	13.0	55.0	32.0	-	-	-
Benin	49.00	1.98	421	36.0	16.0	48.0	7.5	-	-
Botswana	48.00	2.75	2,200	3.0	55.0	42.0	12.0	181.8	91
Burkina Faso	44.00	3.30	370	38.0	24.0	38.0	4.6	97.8	90
Burundi	52.00	1.15	210	55.0	15.0	29.0	3.7	136.3	90
Cameroon	50.00	12.00	1,090	24.0	31.0	45.0	6.6	124.0	89
Cape Verde	60.00	0.33	890	15.0	18.0	67.0	9.7	115.0	87
Central African Rep.	55.00	1.30	440	41.0	19.0	40.0	6.5	91.0	90
Chad	51.20	1.17	207	54.0	14.0	32.0	1.5	90.3	90
Comoros	53.10	0.23	480	37.0	13.0	50.0	5.3	-	-
Congo	51.00	2.29	1,010	10.0	38.0	52.0	0.3	113.1	89
Djibouti	65.20	0.50	1,250	3.0	12.0	85.0	-	104.0	83
Egypt	55.00	31.38	600	19.0	28.0	53.0	11.0	247.0	90
Equatorial Guinea	-	0.13	310	60.0	5.0	35.0	-	78.0	90
Ethiopia	43.10	6.04	120	42.0	18.0	40.0	2.0	106.8	90
Gabon	58.00	3.80	3,450	9.0	51.0	40.0	-0.1	110.0	90
Gambia	78.20	0.23	260	35.0	11.0	54.0	14.1	262.5	90
Ghana	48.00	5.82	390	37.0	30.0	33.0	43.6	393.2	90
Guinea	52.00	2.76	480	30.0	35.0	35.0	-	160.1	90
Guinea-Bissau	41.00	0.15	155	60.0	9.0	31.0	-	78.0	89
Ivory Coast	54.00	8.92	730	29.0	17.0	54.0	9.4	115.3	88
Kenya	45.00	8.95	370	31.0	20.0	49.0	9.0	145.3	90
Lesotho	79.80	0.85	485	18.4	33.7	47.9	12.8	188.2	90
Liberia	52.00	0.70	250	35.0	30.0	35.0	1.1	119.8	88
Libya	50.00	27.88	6,060	3.0	77.0	20.0	0.2	-	-
Madagascar	51.00	2.71	230	41.0	15.0	44.0	17.8	203.6	90
Malawi	84.60	1.76	212	37.0	18.0	45.0	14.6	240.3	90
Mali	48.30	2.45	302	53.0	13.0	34.0	3.6	109.2	90
Mauritania	69.80	1.00	500	38.0	19.0	43.0	9.4	141.7	90
Mauritius	63.00	2.44	2,300	20.0	30.0	50.0	8.3	142.6	90
Morocco	52.00	23.79	950	43.0	30.0	57.0	7.4	126.0	90
Mozambique	51.00	1.20	85	40.0	30.0	30.0	34.9	1,445.0	90
Namibia	-	1.95	1,392	16.0	30.0	54.0	-	217.9	90

(continues)

Table 3—Economic summary: labor and growth

	Eqn. active population (%, 1986)	GNP (US\$'000, 1990)	Per cap. GNP (US\$, 1990)	GNP distribution (%) per economic sector, 1990			Inflation (avg. rate, 1986-89)	Consumer price changes (1985 = 100)	Year
				(primary)	(secondary)	(tertiary)			
Niger	78.90	2.30	300	27.0	17.0	36.0	3.4	85.8	90
Nigeria	55.70	31.28	270	32.0	25.0	43.0	14.2	293.7	90
Rwanda	77.70	2.20	310	37.0	23.0	40.0	4.0	133.5	91
São Tomé & Príncipe	61.10	0.05	880	70.0	5.0	25.0	-	-	-
Senegal	46.20	4.80	665	22.0	26.0	52.0	7.3	100.7	90
Seychelles	66.80	-	4,670	-	15.0	-	3.4	112.7	91
Sierra Leone	62.90	0.64	160	40.0	19.0	41.0	54.1	2,296.2	90
Somalia	63.10	0.95	150	64.0	10.0	26.0	42.8	316.6	88
South Africa	55.00	102.00	2,680	5.0	44.0	51.0	14.1	235.0	91
Sudan	52.00	3.80	150	37.0	15.0	48.0	-	403.9	89
Swaziland	44.10	0.65	789	27.0	29.0	44.0	11.9	140.3	88
Tanzania	75.00	2.77	120	54.0	7.0	39.0	26.1	358.4	90
Togo	69.50	1.47	410	30.0	23.0	47.0	5.1	104.2	90
Tunisia	52.90	12.75	1,560	18.0	32.0	50.0	7.5	149.7	91
Uganda	78.90	3.81	220	81.0	4.0	15.0	108.1	4,900.0	89
Zaire	57.00	8.12	230	38.0	17.0	45.0	59.0	1,888.4	90
Zambia	48.00	3.39	420	14.0	39.0	47.0	38.3	663.5	89
Zimbabwe	76.00	6.31	640	14.0	41.0	45.0	11.0	227.5	91
AMERICA									
Antigua & Barbuda	56.00	0.39	4,600	-	-	-	100.0	100.0	85
Argentina	59.00	76.49	2,370	13.0	35.0	52.0	334.8	1,495.0	90
Bahamas	70.50	2.85	11,400	10.0	11.0	79.0	6.1	128.4	90
Barbados	78.00	1.72	6,745	7.0	20.0	73.0	5.5	120.2	90
Belize	63.00	0.37	1,975	30.0	20.0	50.0	2.4	111.8	90
Bolivia	54.50	4.38	590	20.0	25.0	55.0	391.9	819.4	91
Brazil	63.60	402.79	2,680	15.0	34.0	51.0	227.8	14,412.0	91
Canada	75.00	578.60	22,040	5.0	27.0	68.0	4.6	131.4	91
Chile	63.00	26.08	2,010	12.0	37.0	51.0	20.5	173.0	90
Colombia	59.00	38.00	1,200	21.0	35.0	44.0	24.3	397.9	91
Costa Rica	59.60	5.10	1,750	20.0	25.0	55.0	24.8	281.9	91
Cuba	56.90	10.50	1,000	62.0	16.0	22.0	-	103.1	88
Dominica	61.70	0.16	1,940	-	-	-	-	119.2	90
Dominican Republic	53.00	5.85	820	17.0	30.0	53.0	18.0	425.9	90
Ecuador	56.00	10.15	940	19.0	34.0	47.0	34.4	978.0	91
El Salvador	60.00	5.35	1,040	16.0	22.0	62.0	16.8	287.8	90
Grenada	-	0.20	2,120	24.0	14.0	62.0	-	109.4	89
Guatemala	59.10	8.31	900	25.0	20.0	55.0	13.4	268.1	90
Guyana	60.40	0.29	370	26.0	32.0	42.0	20.0	194.4	88
Haiti	64.80	2.55	400	32.0	22.0	46.0	6.8	123.7	90
Honduras	50.00	4.42	900	22.0	23.0	55.0	4.7	151.4	90
Jamaica	71.60	3.60	1,510	7.0	33.0	60.0	18.5	185.3	90
Mexico	46.90	224.00	2,604	9.0	33.0	58.0	72.7	1,723.8	91
Nicaragua	61.90	1.69	434	23.0	25.0	52.0	86.6	35,585.0	89
Panama	59.20	4.29	1,790	10.0	17.0	73.0	2.5	103.0	91
Paraguay	51.00	4.80	1,110	27.0	26.0	47.0	2.2	427.1	91
Peru	56.90	25.15	1,160	12.0	31.0	57.0	160.3	34,274.0	91
St. Kitts & Nevis	69.50	0.15	3,330	10.0	20.0	70.0	-	115.5	91
St. Lucia	54.40	0.29	1,950	24.0	28.0	50.0	3.6	120.0	90

(continues)

Table 3 — Economic summary: labor and growth

	Econ. active population (%, 1986)	GNP (US\$/000, 1990)	Per cap. GNP (US\$, 1990)	GNP distribution (%) per economic sector, 1990			Inflation (avg. rate, 1980-89)	Consumer price changes (1985 = 100)	Year
				(primary)	(secondary)	(tertiary)			
St. Vincent & Gren.	53.90	0.19	1,610	30.0	20.0	50.0	-	104.1	87
Suriname	38.70	1.36	3,050	11.0	24.0	65.0	6.2	254.8	87
Trinidad & Tobago	61.30	4.46	3,470	4.0	43.0	53.0	5.8	159.0	90
United States	75.50	5,329.60	21,530	2.0	22.5	75.5	4.0	126.6	91
Uruguay	63.00	4.92	2,560	11.0	34.0	55.0	59.2	1,794.0	90
Venezuela	57.90	50.57	2,560	7.0	47.0	46.0	16.0	644.3	91
OCEANIA									
Australia	69.79	298.20	17,740	4.0	35.0	61.0	7.8	146.4	90
Fiji	56.00	1.30	1,730	25.0	23.0	52.0	5.6	147.7	91
Kiribati	75.60	0.05	760	-	-	-	-	126.9	90
Marshall Islands	-	0.10	2,500	-	-	-	-	-	-
Micronesia	-	0.22	2,000	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nauru	69.80	0.12	13,000	-	-	-	-	-	-
New Zealand	64.00	44.10	13,200	9.0	21.0	70.0	11.4	160.4	91
Papua New Guinea	54.00	3.44	900	25.0	40.0	35.0	5.6	128.4	90
Samoa	48.60	0.12	730	30.0	12.0	58.0	-	147.2	90
Solomon Islands	88.60	0.19	580	64.0	6.0	30.0	10.5	183.9	90
Tonga	44.70	0.10	1,100	40.0	12.0	48.0	7.5	176.81	91
Tuvalu	81.00	-	1,200	-	-	-	-	127.5	88
Vanuatu	85.00	0.25	1,640	25.0	-	75.0	4.3	149.2	90

Table 4 — Economic summary: money and finance

	Currency	Monetary unit per US\$1		Money reserves (million US\$)		Foreign debt
		(exchange)	(date)	(amount)	(date)	(million US\$, 1989)
EUROPE						
Albania	lek	110.00	February '93	-	-	-
Andorra	French franc	5.36	April '93	-	-	-
Austria	schilling	11.16	April '93	10,171.00	January '92	67,807
Belgium	franc	32.65	April '93	11,097.00	November '91	233,179
Bulgaria	lev	26.31	February '93	-	-	10,964
ex Czechoslovakia	crown	29.17	February '93	2,152.00	September '91	7,300
Denmark	crown	6.08	April '93	6,766.00	January '92	71,225
Finland	mark	5.55	April '93	7,608.70	December '91	12,257
France	franc	5.36	April '93	31,284.00	December '91	384,200
Germany	mark	1.59	April '93	-	-	-
Germany (ex GFR)	-	-	-	63,001.00	December '91	299,869
Great Britain (UK)	pound sterl.	0.64	April '93	40,860.00	February '92	110,560
Greece	drachma	216.64	April '93	4,345.00	January '92	11,143
Hungary	forint	84.89	February '93	3,295.00	November '91	16,843
Iceland	crown	66.11	February '93	449.50	December '91	1,742
Ireland	pound	0.65	April '93	5,242.00	January '92	40,943
Italy	lira	1,531.62	April '93	45,061.00	January '92	775,050
ex Yugoslavia	-	-	-	2,682.00	December '91	14,303
- Bosnia-Herzegovina	dinar	750.03	February '93	-	-	-

(continues)

Table 4 — Economic summary: money and finance

	Currency	Monetary unit per US\$1 (exchange)	(date)	Money reserves (million US\$) (amount)	(date)	Foreign debt (million US\$, 1990)
- Croatia	dinar	1,031.98	February '93	-	-	-
- Macedonia	dinar	750.03	February '93	-	-	-
- Slovenia	tolar	102.65	February '93	-	-	-
- Yugoslavia (Fed. Rep.)	new dinar	750.03	February '93	-	-	-
Liechtenstein	Swiss franc	1.45	April '93	-	-	-
Luxembourg	franc	32.65	April '93	28.78	January '92	348
Malta	lira	0.38	February '93	1,295.70	November '91	354
Monaco	French franc	5.36	April '93	-	-	-
Netherlands	guilder	1.78	April '93	16,790.00	January '91	153,396
Norway	crown	6.74	April '93	13,062.90	January '92	24,122
Poland	zloty	16,500.74	February '93	3,358.30	January '92	34,747
Portugal	escudo	147.27	April '93	20,629.00	December '91	14,644
Romania	leu	501.15	February '93	380.00	December '91	-
San Marino	Italian lira	1,531.62	April '93	-	-	-
Spain	peseta	114.30	April '93	64,018.00	January '92	198,000
Sweden	crown	7.39	April '93	18,331.00	December '91	94,668
Switzerland	franc	1.45	April '93	28,861.00	January '92	-
ex USSR	-	-	-	-	-	81,000
- Estonia	crown	13.82	February '93	-	-	0.62% (b)
- Georgia	ruble	0.59 (a)	February '93	-	-	1.62% (b)
- Latvia	ruble	0.59 (a)	February '93	-	-	1.14% (b)
- Lithuania	ruble	0.59 (a)	February '93	-	-	1.41% (b)
CIS						
- Armenia	ruble	0.59 (a)	February '93	-	-	0.86% (b)
- Azerbaijan	ruble	0.59 (a)	February '93	-	-	1.64% (b)
- Belarus	ruble	0.59 (a)	February '93	-	-	4.13% (b)
- Kazakhstan	ruble	0.59 (a)	February '93	-	-	3.86% (b)
- Kyrgyzstan	ruble	0.59 (a)	February '93	-	-	0.95% (b)
- Moldova	ruble	0.59 (a)	February '93	-	-	1.29% (b)
- Russia	ruble	0.59 (a)	February '93	-	-	61.34% (b)
- Tajikistan	ruble	0.59 (a)	February '93	-	-	0.82% (b)
- Turkmenistan	ruble	0.59 (a)	February '93	-	-	0.70% (b)
- Ukraine	ruble	0.59 (a)	February '93	-	-	16.37% (b)
- Uzbekistan	ruble	0.59 (a)	February '93	-	-	3.25% (b)
Vatican City	Italian lira	1,531.62	April '93	-	-	-
ASIA						
Afghanistan	afghani	68.95	February '93	252.99	September '91	1,800
Bahrain	dinar	0.38	February '93	1,425.70	January '92	365
Bangladesh	taka	39.25	February '93	1,282.20	December '91	9,926
Bhutan	ngultrum	29.51	February '93	-	-	77
Brunei	dollar	1.65	February '93	-	-	-
Cambodia	riel	2,001.38	February '93	-	-	704
China	renminbi	5.76	February '93	43,060.00	November '91	37,043
Cyprus	pound	0.49	February '93	1,394.00	November '91	-
Hong Kong	dollar	7.73	February '93	-	-	-
India	rupee	29.51	February '93	3,902.00	January '92	54,776
Indonesia	rupiah	2,087.58	February '93	9,496.00	January '92	40,851
Iran	rial	66.30	February '93	-	-	5,000
Iraq	dinar	0.41	February '93	-	-	75,000

(continues)



Table 4 — Economic summary: money and finance

	Currency	Monetary unit per US\$1 (exchange)	(date)	Money reserves (million US\$) (amount)	(date)	Foreign debt (million US\$, 1989)
Israel	shekel	2.81	February '93	6,279.10	December '91	74,216
Japan	yen	113.71	April '93	71,709.00	January '92	113,300
Jordan	dinar	0.69	February '93	813.10	January '92	6,404
Korea, North	won	2.15	February '93	—	—	6,780
Korea, South	won	801.59	February '93	9,618.00	November '91	17,351
Kuwait	dinar	0.31	February '93	3,409.00	December '91	508
Laos	new kip	720.09	February '93	—	—	939
Lebanon	pound	1,826.94	February '93	1,065.20	December '92	234
Malaysia	ringgit	2.63	February '93	10,222.00	November '91	14,461
Maldives	rufiyaa	129.53	February '93	26.50	January '92	54.50
Mongolia	tugrik	149.99	February '93	—	—	17,000
Myanmar (Burma)	kyat	6.58	February '93	232.40	June '91	4,045
Nepal	rupee	46.63	February '93	406.00	January '92	1,290
Oman	riyal	0.39	February '93	1,712.10	November '91	2,626
Pakistan	rupee	26.06	February '93	391.00	January '92	14,669
Philippines	peso	24.70	February '93	3,246.00	December '91	22,992
Qatar	riyal	3.70	February '93	627.70	August '91	1,100
Saudi Arabia	riyal	3.67	February '93	11,836.00	January '92	1,925
Singapore	dollar	1.65	February '93	32,884.00	November '91	3,102
Sri Lanka	rupee	46.19	February '93	672.00	January '92	4,238
Syria	pound	21.00	February '93	23,040.00	October '89	3,934
Taiwan	new dollar	26.03	February '93	—	—	3,765
Thailand	baht	25.56	February '93	18,061.00	January '92	12,424
Turkey	lire	9,070.58	February '93	5,144.00	December '91	34,781
United Arab Emirates	dirham	3.67	February '93	5,365.40	December '91	9,300
Vietnam	dong	10,480.20	February '93	—	—	9,000
Yemen	dinar	0.45	February '93	243.50	January '90	4,775
AFRICA						
Algeria	dinar	22.57	February '93	1,436.00	January '92	23,609
Angola	kwanza	526.57	February '93	—	—	1,356
Benin	CFA franc	268.00	April '93	107.20	October '91	1,046
Botswana	pula	2.31	February '93	3,063.32	November '91	509
Burkina Faso	CFA franc	268.00	April '93	295.30	October '91	685
Burundi	franc	248.85	February '93	157.58	January '92	810
Cameroon	CFA franc	268.00	April '93	34.94	June '91	3,708
Cape Verde	escudo	75.29	February '93	57.45	June '91	120
Central African Rep.	CFA franc	268.00	April '93	94.64	February '91	642
Chad	CFA franc	268.00	April '93	106.20	June '91	317
Comoros	Comorian franc	271.06	April '93	22.29	June '91	162
Congo	CFA franc	268.00	April '93	15.14	June '92	3,535
Djibouti	franc	174.38	February '93	99.60	January '92	133
Egypt	pound	3.35	February '93	4,813.00	November '91	39,751
Equatorial Guinea	CFA franc	268.00	April '93	1.18	August '91	204
Ethiopia	birr	4.95	February '93	54.50	December '91	2,876
Gabon	CFA franc	268.00	April '93	428.14	June '91	2,478
Gambia	dalasi	8.74	February '93	63.70	September '91	282
Ghana	cedi	580.02	February '93	444.90	September '91	2,279
Guinea	franc	812.50	February '93	—	—	1,967
Guinea-Bissau	peso	5,009.45	February '93	—	—	473

(continues)

Table 4 --- Economic summary: money and finance

	Currency	Monetary unit per US\$1		Money reserves (million US\$)		Foreign debt (million US\$, 1989)
		(exchange)	(date)	(amount)	(date)	
Ivory Coast	CFA franc	268.00	April '93	8.50	October '91	8,156
Kenya	shilling	36.50	February '93	109.50	November '91	4,001
Lesotho	loti	3.12	February '93	137.00	January '92	512
Liberia	dollar	1.00	April '93	7.87	December '89	1,091
Libya	dinar	0.29	February '93	5,695.00	December '91	182
Madagascar	franc	1,850.92	February '93	113.20	September '90	3,345
Malawi	kwacha	4.41	February '93	167.00	November '91	1,242
Mali	CFA franc	384.25	January '92	247.90	October '91	2,055
Mauritania	ouguiya	106.01	February '93	51.30	November '91	1,777
Mauritius	rupee	17.37	February '93	869.10	January '92	631
Morocco	dirham	9.00	February '93	2,928.00	January '92	19,507
Mozambique	metical	2,740.41	February '93	-	-	3,885
Namibia	rand	3.12	February '93	-	-	1,880
Niger	CFA franc	268.00	April '93	189.60	October '91	1,127
Nigeria	naira	23.00	February '93	4,435.00	December '91	31,668
Rwanda	franc	154.81	February '93	96.13	January '92	606
São Tomé & Príncipe	dobra	6.46	February '93	-	-	125
Senegal	CFA franc	268.00	April '93	26.54	January '92	3,508
Seychelles	rupee	5.25	February '93	26.54	January '92	133
Sierra Leone	leone	535.04	February '93	9.60	January '91	512
Somalia	shilling	2,620.05	February '93	11.40	January '90	1,814
South Africa	rand	3.12	February '93	1,270.00	January '92	29,520
Sudan	pound	10.00	February '93	6.50	January '92	8,261
Swaziland	lilangeni	3.12	February '93	171.93	December '91	260
Tanzania	shilling	340.07	February '93	-	-	4,505
Togo	CFA franc	268.00	April '93	151.50	June '91	946
Tunisia	dinar	1.01	February '93	789.00	December '91	6,085
Uganda	shilling	1,211.77	February '93	57.20	January '92	1,489
Zaire	zaire	15,510.70	February '93	169.74	October '91	7,571
Zambia	kwacha	375.05	February '93	184.60	December '91	4,095
Zimbabwe	dollar	6.32	February '93	105.00	January '92	2,568
AMERICA						
Antigua & Barbuda	dollar	2.90	April '92	30.37	September '91	237
Argentina	peso	1.00	February '93	1,629.60	January '92	51,429
Bahamas	dollar	1.00	February '93	171.80	November '91	704
Barbados	dollar	2.01	February '93	86.36	December '91	870
Belize	dollar	2.00	January '92	56.39	January '92	126
Bolivia	peso	4.12	February '93	106.40	January '92	3,065
Brazil	new cruzeiro	17,044.73	February '93	6,177.00	September '91	84,284
Canada	dollar	1.26	April '93	18,118.00	January '92	311,971
Chile	peso	385.84	February '93	6,133.90	September '91	10,850
Colombia	peso	821.98	February '93	5,968.00	November '91	14,001
Costa Rica	colón	138.45	February '93	934.48	January '92	3,480
Cuba	peso	0.76	February '93	-	-	6,700
Dominica	dollar	2.90	April '92	99.60	January '92	63.2
Dominican Republic	peso	13.00	February '93	448.00	January '92	3,281
Ecuador	sucre	1,842.13	February '93	709.50	October '91	9,421
El Salvador	colón	8.81	February '93	287.80	January '92	1,657
Grenada	dollar	2.90	April '92	16.78	January '91	67.8

(continues)

Table 4 — Economic summary: money and finance

	Currency	Monetary unit per US\$1 (exchange)	(date)	Money reserves (million US\$) (amount)	(date)	Foreign debt (million US\$, 1989)
Guatemala	quetzal	5.32	February '93	807.30	December '91	2,089
Guyana	dollar	125.02	February '93	124.42	December '91	987
Haiti	gourde	12.00	February '93	5.30	June '91	684
Honduras	lempira	5.87	February '93	104.90	December '91	2,823
Jamaica	dollar	22.05	February '93	180.70	January '91	3,594
Mexico	new peso	3.10	February '93	17,295.00	October '91	76,257
Nicaragua	córdoba	6.01	February '93	—	—	7,546
Panama	balboa	1.00	February '93	498.00	November '91	3,575
Paraguay	guaraní	1,648.32	February '93	671.61	January '92	2,098
Peru	new sol	1.73	February '93	2,443.00	January '92	12,669
St. Kitts & Nevis	dollar	2.90	April '92	14.47	September '91	32.5
St. Lucia	dollar	2.70	January '92	49.40	September '91	55
St. Vincent & Grenad.	dollar	2.90	April '92	21.00	September '91	49.1
Suriname	guilder	1.78	February '93	12.00	October '91	70
Trinidad & Tobago	dollar	4.25	February '93	338.60	December '91	1,680
United States	dollar	1.00	—	6,481.00	January '92	359,800
Uruguay	new peso	3,559.50	February '93	369.00	November '91	2,967
Venezuela	bolívar	81.80	February '93	10,665.00	December '91	25,339
<b>OCEANIA</b>						
Australia	dollar	1.39	April '93	14,731.00	January '92	70,397
Fiji	dollar	1.59	February '93	271.43	December '91	286
Kiribati	dollar	—	April '93	—	—	12.0
Marshall Islands	dollar	1	April '93	—	—	—
Micronesia	dollar	1	April '93	—	—	—
Nauru	dollar	1.39	April '93	—	—	—
New Zealand	dollar	1.96	February '93	2,949.00	January '92	19,200
Papua New Guinea	kina	1.00	February '93	323.00	December '91	1,370
Samoa	tala	2.58	April '92	67.81	December '91	800
Solomon Islands	dollar	2.82	January '92	10.29	January '92	100
Tonga	pa'anga	1.39	April '93	—	—	47
Tuvalu	dollar	1.39	April '93	—	—	—
Vanuatu	vatu	112.19	January '92	39.66	December '91	26

(a) The former U.S.S.R. ruble is quoted at the official exchange rate. The "market" exchange rate on the same date was 570.67 rubles per US\$.

(b) Percentage distribution of the foreign debt of the former U.S.S.R. as agreed upon by the various independent republics on December 4, 1991.

Table 5 — Economic summary: foreign trade and tourism

	Exports (million US\$)	Imports (million US\$)	Balance of payments (in million US\$)	Year	Tourism (tourists/000)	* (year)
<b>EUROPE</b>						
Albania	267.4	446.5	—	90	14.4	89
Andorra	24.6	700.4	—	87	12,000.0	88
Austria	40,252.0	48,234.0	958.0	87	19,201.8	90

(continues)

Table 5 — Economic summary: foreign trade and tourism

	Exports (million US\$)	Imports (million US\$)	Balance of payments (in million US\$)	Year	Tourism (tourists*000)	(year)
Belgium	108,762.0	108,132.0	4,548.0	90	12,168.3	89
Bulgaria	17,300.9	16,713.6	-	-	8,295.0	89
<i>ex Czechoslovakia</i>	2,753.0	2,313.0	536.0	91	24,486.0	89
Denmark	35,740.0	31,174.0	1,541.0	90	8,638.1	89
Finland	26,089.0	25,322.0	-6,682.0	90	2,829.8	90
France	206,672.0	220,339.0	-13,777.0	90	38,228.0	89
Germany	-	-	-	-	16,000.0	90
Germany ( <i>ex GFR</i> )	391,580.0	319,630.0	44,040.0	90	-	-
Great Britain (UK)	182,229.0	214,800.0	26,086.0	90	17,338.0	89
Greece	6,365.0	16,543.0	-3,537.0	90	8,274.0	89
Hungary	9,151.0	8,617.0	379.0	90	37,000.0	90
Iceland	1,588.6	1,509.1	-160.3	90	141.8	90
Ireland	23,359.0	19,382.0	1,433.0	90	3,484.0	89
Italy	169,940.0	169,220.0	-12,730.0	90	55,131.0	89
Lichtenstein	989.4	535.4	-	89	77.3	89
Luxembourg	5,402.0	6,193.1	-	89	559.4	89
Malta	858.0	1,494.0	6.0	89	783.8	89
Monaco	-	-	-	-	245.1	89
Netherlands	122,253.0	111,737.0	10,313.0	90	3,321.9	89
Norway	34,138.0	26,513.0	3,783.0	90	5,340.0	89
Poland	15,837.0	12,248.0	3,067.0	90	8,233.0	89
Portugal	16,427.0	23,007.0	-139.0	90	18,422.0	89
Romania	883.0	1,049.0	-92.0	91	6,500.0	90
San Marino	-	-	-	-	2,917.0	89
Spain	55,221.0	86,959.0	15,983.0	91	54,178.2	89
Sweden	56,835.0	53,433.0	-5,463.0	90	3,363.0	89
Switzerland	77,488.0	83,865.0	6,941.0	90	29,860.0	89
<i>ex USSR</i>	109,200.3	114,594.1	-	89	6,007.0	89
- Estonia	3.12 (b)	3.82 (b)	-	-	-	-
- Georgia	6.09 (b)	6.47 (b)	-	-	-	-
- Latvia	5.41 (b)	6.03 (b)	-	-	-	-
- Lithuania	6.33 (b)	7.35 (b)	-	-	-	-
CIS	-	-	-	-	-	-
- Armenia	3.69 (b)	4.90 (b)	-	-	-	-
- Azerbaijan	7.12 (b)	5.19 (b)	-	-	-	-
- Belarus	20.30 (a)	19.35 (a)	-	-	-	-
- Kazakhstan	9.09 (b)	17.57 (b)	-	-	-	-
- Kyrgyzstan	2.60 (b)	4.29 (b)	-	-	-	-
- Moldova	5.46 (a)	6.61 (a)	-	-	-	-
- Russia	109.61 (a)	144.27 (a)	-	-	-	-
- Tajikistan	2.53 (b)	3.93 (b)	-	-	-	-
- Turkmenistan	2.66 (b)	3.33 (b)	-	-	-	-
- Ukraine	48.06 (a)	54.54 (a)	-	-	-	-
- Uzbekistan	10.17 (b)	14.16 (b)	-	-	-	-
<i>ex Yugoslavia</i>	-	-	-2,364.0	90	8,644.0	89
- Bosnia-Herzegovina	1,796.0	1,630.0	-	90	-	-
- Croatia	2,549.0	3,837.0	-	90	-	-
- Macedonia	506.0	972.0	-	90	-	-
- Slovenia	3,602.0	4,091.0	-	90	-	-
- Yugoslavia (Fed. Rep.)	3,964.0	5,630.0	-	90	-	-

\* (continued)

Table 5 — Economic summary: foreign trade and tourism

	Exports (million US\$)	Imports (million US\$)	Balance of payments (in million US\$)	Year	Tourism (tourists/000)	Year
Bahama	300.9	1,228.8	-185.2	90	3,398.3	89
Barbados	146.9	599.3	-2.6	89	461.3	89
Belize	124.4	188.5	-19.1	89	144.2	89
Bolivia	830.8	775.6	-200.8	90	163.2	89
Brazil	34,375.0	18,263.0	1,025.0	89	1,742.9	89
Canada	129,046.0	119,093.0	-18,815.0	90	38,000.0	89
Chile	8,310.0	7,037.0	-790.0	90	797.4	89
Colombia	7,105.0	5,088.0	391.0	90	733.0	89
Costa Rica	1,365.6	1,833.3	-583.8	90	376.0	89
Cuba	6,297.6	9,172.9	-	-	225.0	89
Dominica	59.9	103.9	-25.8	90	27.3	89
Dominican Republic	734.7	1,792.9	-58.6	90	1,221.7	89
Ecuador	2,714.0	1,711.0	-136.0	90	238.0	89
El Salvador	557.5	1,220.2	-369.7	89	131.0	89
Grenada	31.6	88.7	-26.0	87	196.1	89
Guatemala	1,126.1	1,484.4	-367.1	89	437.0	89
Guyana	214.0	208.1	-96.0	85	-	-
Haiti	139.0	224.8	-55.2	90	79.3	89
Honduras	966.7	964.0	-302.2	89	249.8	89
Jamaica	1,156.9	1,624.8	-263.4	90	1,016.6	89
Mexico	26,773.0	29,799.0	-5,255.0	90	6,351.0	89
Nicaragua	235.7	718.3	-715.2	88	100.0	89
Panama	3,195.0	3,804.0	168.0	90	2,112.0	89
Paraguay	1,392.3	1,353.6	91.2	90	284.0	89
Peru	3,276.0	2,885.0	-674.0	90	320.0	89
St. Kitts & Nevis	24.6	103.2	-50.3	90	108.7	89
St. Lucia	111.9	235.2	-41.6	89	242.4	89
St. Vincent & Grenad.	74.6	114.8	-10.2	89	128.6	89
Suriname	465.9	374.4	33.0	90	10.3	89
Trinidad & Tobago	1,935.2	947.6	430.0	90	186.3	89
United States	389,540.0	497,660.0	-92.2	90	36,604.0	89
Uruguay	1,692.9	1,266.9	223.9	90	843.5	89
Venezuela	17,411.0	6,543.0	8,198.0	87	692.4	89
OCEANIA						
Australia	38,930.0	38,966.0	-15,047.0	90	2,249.3	89
Fiji	494.3	591.1	6.9	90	273.7	89
Kiribati	2.9	26.9	6.0	90	8.0	89
Marshall Islands	2.1	33.8	-	88	-	-
Micronesia	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nauru	73.5	13.9	-	88	-	-
New Zealand	9,283.0	8,452.0	-1,594.0	90	933.4	89
Papua New Guinea	1,318.5	1,341.3	-355.3	89	48.9	89
Samoa	8.9	73.2	0.8	86	49.7	89
Solomon Islands	70.4	80.4	-25.5	90	12.9	89
Tonga	8.9	47.0	8.3	90	31.6	89
Tuvalu	-	2.6	-	86	1.0	89
Vanuatu	13.8	79.6	8.0	90	34.0	89

(a) Imports in billions of rubles, 1991 (including transactions inside the former U.S.S.R.).

(b) Imports in billions of rubles, 1989 (including transactions inside the former U.S.S.R.).

Table 6 — Transportation and communications

	Road network (mi) (yr)		Rail network (mi) (yr)		Ships (1990 total)	Airports (No.)	Books (titles publ.)	(yr)	Dollars (1988 cnc./'000)	Periodicals (cnc./'000)	(yr)
EUROPE											
Albania	10,354	88	446	90	19	1	939	85	135	-	-
Andorra	136	81	-	-	-	-	14	86	85	-	-
Austria	67,878	89	3,487	90	32	6	9,462	89	2,712	-	-
Belgium	79,535	87	2,178	89	330	5	6,822	89	2,174	36	88
Bulgaria	22,876	89	2,666	89	200	5	4,543	89	2,396	4,008	89
ex Czechoslovakia	45,657	89	8,126	89	23	8	9,294	89	5,364	1,139	88
Denmark	43,880	90	1,453	89	1,260	9	10,762	89	1,842	1,493	88
Finland	47,607	90	3,638	90	269	6	10,097	89	2,707	-	-
France	499,032	90	21,280	89	900	14	40,115	89	9,328	16,282	81
Germany	137,060	90	27,201	89	1,551	13	-	-	-	-	-
Germany (ex GFR)	-	-	-	-	-	-	71,998	89	29,953	13,710	88
Great Britain (UK)	235,753	89	10,490	89	1,998	11	52,861	85	22,494	29,047	88
Greece	23,626	87	1,537	89	1,814	4	4,651	85	609	-	-
Hungary	18,496	90	4,856	89	-	1	8,631	89	2,888	5,845	86
Iceland	7,064	89	-	-	392	1	1,250	89	125	-	-
Ireland	57,228	89	1,205	88	177	3	2,679	85	724	1,935	88
Italy	188,066	89	12,127	89	1,616	5	22,647	89	6,005	2,027	88
Liechtenstein	200	86	12	90	-	-	-	-	16	2	88
Luxembourg	3,156	90	168	90	-	1	520	89	145	-	-
Malta	988	90	-	-	524	1	386	89	54	-	-
Monaco	31	86	1	90	-	1	48	89	-	708	84
Netherlands	71,489	88	1,753	89	1,227	5	15,392	89	4,592	800	84
Norway	55,056	91	2,543	90	2,557	18	5,331	89	2,309	375	88
Poland	210,918	88	16,261	90	698	4	10,286	89	6,939	3,106	88
Portugal	21,056	81	2,236	89	329	3	7,733	87	859	6,942	86
Romania	45,146	90	7,036	90	483	7	3,867	89	3,648	756	86
San Marino	147	87	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Spain	96,990	88	7,790	89	2,338	2	38,353	89	3,200	-	-
Sweden	60,672	91	6,945	90	679	10	11,197	89	4,387	452	88
Switzerland	44,081	89	3,112	89	20	5	13,270	89	3,280	7,303	88
ex USSR	982,328	88	91,450	90	7,383	10	-	-	-	-	-
- Estonia	18,042	89	639	-	-	1	1,628	90	-	-	-
- Georgia	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,659	90	-	-	-
- Latvia	36,146	89	1,486	89	-	1	1,564	89	-	-	-
- Lithuania	26,350	90	1,234	90	-	1	2,686	89	-	-	-
CIS											
- Armenia	-	-	-	-	-	-	817	90	-	-	-
- Azerbaijan	-	-	-	-	-	-	829	90	-	-	-
- Belarus	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,962	88	2,738	2,413	89
- Kazakhstan	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,055	90	-	-	-
- Kyrgyzstan	-	-	-	-	-	-	936	90	-	-	-
- Moldova	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,277	89	-	-	-
- Russia	-	-	-	-	-	-	76,711	89	133,979	92,710	89
- Tajikistan	-	-	-	-	-	-	787	90	-	-	-
- Turkmenistan	-	-	-	-	-	-	759	90	24,000	-	-
- Ukraine	-	-	-	-	-	-	8,311	88	-	-	-
- Uzbekistan	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,980	90	-	-	-
Vatican City	-	-	-	-	-	-	168	88	70	-	-
ex Yugoslavia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,354	23,405	89

(continued)



Table 6 — Transportation and communications

	Road network		Rail network		Ships	Airports	Books		Dailies	Periodicals	
	(ml)	(yr)	(ml)	(yr)	(1990 total)	(No.)	(titles publ.)	(yr)	(1988 circ./'000)	(circ./'000)	(yr)
- Bosnia-Herzegovina	5,035	89	-	-	-	2	1,008	89	-	-	-
- Croatia	19,884	89	-	-	-	3	2,413	89	-	-	-
- Macedonia	6,566	90	-	-	-	1	796	89	-	-	-
- Slovenia	9,023	90	-	-	-	2	1,932	89	-	-	-
- Yugoslavia (Fed. Rep.)	76,364	89	5,932	89	501	1	5,190	89	-	-	-
<b>ASIA</b>											
Afghanistan	11,786	82	-	-	-	2	415	83	151	-	-
Bahrain	1,410	86	-	-	-	1	46	83	12	-	-
Bangladesh	6,750	86	1,781	88	308	2	1,209	88	1,016	350	86
Brunei	1,363	89	-	-	-	1	16	89	-	83	89
Cambodia	8,278	86	435	89	-	6	-	-	-	-	-
China	619,752	89	39,758	87	1,948	5	74,973	89	39,597	46,089	82
Cyprus	8,546	86	-	-	1,270	1	561	89	86	124	88
Hong Kong	948	91	21	89	375	1	5,681	83	3,146	-	-
India	1,099,136	85	38,425	88	855	5	11,851	89	21,857	42,464	86
Indonesia	145,117	87	4,052	86	1,884	6	1,687	89	3,716	3,445	88
Iran	93,923	86	2,832	85	393	2	6,289	-	640	-	-
Iraq	24,561	87	1,633	88	143	2	82	-	572	-	-
Israel	8,048	88	574	88	58	3	2,214	85	1,133	-	-
Japan	685,456	89	15,985	87	10,000	4	36,346	87	71,228	-	-
Jordan	4,340	85	384	86	-	2	-	-	210	902	88
Korea, North	13,640	82	5,270	89	89	3	-	-	1,000	-	-
Korea, South	35,018	89	3,991	89	2,110	3	39,267	89	10,429	-	-
Kuwait	2,540	87	-	-	225	1	793	88	410	420	88
Laos	8,113	86	-	-	-	1	-	-	13	-	-
Lebanon	4,569	89	257	82	175	1	-	-	276	-	-
Malaysia	24,223	86	1,319	86	498	3	3,348	89	2,462	4,292	84
Maldives	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	7	86
Mongolia	17,991	86	1,084	85	-	1	889	86	177	718	84
Myanmar (Burma)	14,384	86	1,945	87	142	1	673	85	329	-	-
Nepal	3,910	87	39	81	-	1	122	89	122	-	-
Pakistan	69,525	89	5,440	87	71	5	1,600	83	7,314	4,138	88
Philippines	100,642	86	657	88	1,420	2	1,072	88	3,298	-	-
Qatar	670	86	-	-	-	2	461	87	70	8	88
Saudi Arabia	56,637	87	637	87	311	4	207	83	490	-	-
Singapore	1,758	89	-	-	774	1	1,927	83	763	425	84
Sri Lanka	53,455	86	901	86	78	1	2,188	89	580	1,041	86
Syria	18,729	87	1,272	87	-	6	119	83	244	-	-
Taiwan	12,399	89	2,852	89	660	3	9,256	86	-	-	-
Thailand	27,534	89	2,311	89	296	24	11,217	89	4,750	7,275	88
Turkey	198,779	88	5,227	89	869	7	6,685	85	3,094	-	-
United Arab Emirates	2,703	84	-	-	-	4	152	89	300	-	-
Vietnam	53,134	86	1,825	86	190	8	2,060	83	545	-	-
Yemen	29,431	86	-	-	39	4	-	-	132	-	-
<b>AFRICA</b>											
Algeria	44,696	85	2,381	87	148	6	718	84	510	800	87
Angola	44,888	86	1,830	87	-	4	14	86	85	-	-
Benin	4,616	85	359	85	-	1	13	83	31	-	-

(continues)

Table 6 — Transportation and communications

	Road network		Rail network		Ships	Airports	Books	Dailies	Periodicals	
	(mi)	(yr)	(mi)	(yr)	(1990 total)	(No.)	(titles publ.)	(yr)	(1988 circ./'000)	(circ./'000) (yr)
Botswana	4,976	85	444	84	—	4	289	87	31	—
Burkina Faso	6,963	83	341	88	—	2	4	85	5	36
Burundi	3,658	88	—	—	—	1	54	86	20	—
Cameroon	39,720	86	849	85	43	5	22	83	65	315
Cape Verde	1,395	84	—	—	—	1	10	—	—	—
Central African Rep.	11,981	88	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—
Chad	20,026	88	—	—	—	2	—	—	1	88
Comoros	465	85	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Congo	5,394	85	495	85	—	2	9	83	8	15
Djibouti	1,801	88	66	85	—	1	—	—	—	—
Egypt	19,617	86	3,320	86	435	5	1,451	88	1,935	2,031
Equatorial Guinea	1,711	82	—	—	—	2	—	—	1	—
Ethiopia	24,172	87	489	87	29	2	560	88	42	40
Gabon	4,672	86	640	83	—	6	—	—	15	20
Gambia	1,911	83	—	—	—	1	42	88	1	—
Ghana	17,546	85	591	85	146	3	350	83	460	—
Guinea	18,047	86	590	83	—	4	—	—	13	—
Guinea-Bissau	3,136	82	—	—	—	1	—	—	6	—
Ivory Coast	33,316	84	730	86	51	2	46	83	90	145
Kenya	33,581	85	1,201	85	—	4	933	87	303	281
Lesotho	2,923	88	1	83	—	1	—	—	47	10
Liberia	6,389	84	304	85	1,688	1	—	—	23	—
Libya	15,918	86	—	—	112	4	121	88	40	—
Madagascar	5,276	88	653	88	82	5	146	89	69	220
Malawi	7,573	85	514	86	—	3	141	89	25	121
Mali	8,705	89	401	87	—	2	160	84	40	—
Mauritania	5,053	88	428	88	—	3	21	85	—	—
Mauritius	1,105	86	—	—	36	1	100	89	75	45
Morocco	36,686	87	1,174	87	450	15	—	—	290	—
Mozambique	24,287	85	2,383	85	—	4	66	84	81	—
Namibia	25,863	87	1,477	85	—	1	—	—	18	—
Niger	6,197	86	—	—	—	2	1,466	89	1,108	—
Nigeria	76,880	85	2,173	87	249	3	—	—	—	—
Rwanda	7,483	87	—	—	—	2	207	87	1	171
São Tomé & Príncipe	236	88	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Senegal	8,660	82	735	84	—	4	42	83	58	60
Seychelles	167	88	—	—	—	1	2	83	3	3
Sierra Leone	4,650	89	370	85	—	1	16	84	10	—
Somalia	13,814	88	—	—	27	1	—	—	—	—
South Africa	113,440	87	14,644	89	236	5	—	—	1,617	—
Sudan	45,618	85	3,412	83	21	3	—	—	590	121
Swaziland	1,723	88	229	87	—	1	—	—	50	—
Tanzania	37,038	84	2,765	85	39	5	363	84	180	—
Togo	4,995	86	326	85	—	2	—	—	10	—
Tunisia	17,180	88	1,390	88	73	5	293	88	172	—
Uganda	17,566	85	797	86	—	1	—	—	49	—
Zaire	28,371	89	3,186	88	—	5	194	83	45	113
Zambia	23,183	88	1,342	88	—	3	454	83	89	123
Zimbabwe	28,491	85	2,104	83	—	2	337	89	214	428

Table 6 — Transportation and communications

	Road network		Rail network		Ships	Airports	Books	Dailies	Periodicals	
	(mi)	(yr)	(mi)	(yr)	(1990 total)	(No.)	(titles publ.)	(yr)	(1988 circ./'000)	(circ./'000) (yr)
<b>AMERICA</b>										
Antigua & Barbuda	720	86	48	90	—	1	—	—	6	—
Argentina	131,049	86	21,199	88	479	6	4,836	87	2,652	—
Bahamas	2,542	85	—	—	807	2	—	—	35	—
Barbados	1,018	85	—	—	—	1	87	83	—	35
Belize	1,861	85	—	—	—	1	12	85	—	25
Bolivia	25,818	88	2,295	88	—	3	447	88	353	—
Brazil	931,608	88	18,496	87	691	6	17,648	85	7,944	4,766
Canada	548,234	84	74,400	86	1,224	7	8,600	83	5,993	16,719
Chile	49,118	87	5,075	90	365	2	2,350	89	840	118
Colombia	65,855	86	2,110	87	103	5	1,486	89	1,631	—
Costa Rica	22,045	90	434	87	30	2	198	89	245	818
Cuba	21,080	84	7,756	88	410	1	2,199	89	1,315	216
Dominica	469	84	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—
Dominican Republic	10,614	85	1,025	87	31	3	1,504	83	267	—
Ecuador	22,692	88	695	86	158	2	—	—	887	—
El Salvador	7,542	87	373	86	—	2	15	88	229	—
Grenada	576	84	—	—	—	1	2	83	—	—
Guatemala	11,160	85	591	88	—	2	312	83	135	—
Guyana	5,512	85	68	85	75	1	46	89	58	—
Haiti	2,294	85	155	85	—	1	271	89	45	—
Honduras	11,467	88	592	89	754	3	—	—	199	—
Jamaica	10,316	84	215	85	—	2	71	85	155	—
Mexico	144,901	88	16,330	88	640	5	3,490	89	10,539	889
Nicaragua	9,298	86	213	86	—	1	41	87	80	—
Panama	5,984	88	353	87	4,748	1	114	83	161	—
Paraguay	14,636	86	273	87	39	1	—	—	53	—
Peru	43,364	87	2,140	86	617	1	481	88	669	—
St. Kitts & Nevis	189	87	—	—	—	1	3	88	—	22
St. Lucia	463	86	—	—	—	2	63	85	8	5
St. Vincent & Grenad.	462	87	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	11
Suriname	5,529	85	54	87	—	1	—	—	40	—
Trinidad & Tobago	4,898	85	—	—	49	1	101	83	134	302
United States	3,874,020	88	173,092	88	6,348	20	51,058	83	62,502	—
Uruguay	30,884	85	1,854	87	91	1	805	89	694	—
Venezuela	62,354	85	272	87	273	8	1202	87	2,225	468
<b>OCEANIA</b>										
Australia	528,851	86	23,574	88	721	6	10,963	87	4,121	15,208
Fiji	2,989	90	658	86	—	1	13	85	76	74
Kiribati	397	87	—	—	—	1	—	—	255	—
Marshall Islands	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—
Micronesia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Nauru	12	87	4	90	—	1	—	—	—	—
New Zealand	57,644	89	2,645	89	135	3	3,452	84	1,090	—
Papua New Guinea	12,236	86	—	—	—	1	—	—	45	—
Samoa	1,293	83	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—
Solomon Islands	1,302	87	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—
Tonga	268	88	—	—	—	1	33	83	7	8
Tuvalu	5	85	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—
Vanuatu	658	84	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	2

Table 7 — Economic production: Crops and Livestock  
Cereals

WHEAT (in thousands of metric tons)						
	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod. % 1991
World Total	601,723	550,993	100.0	Egypt	4,268	4,483 0.8
China	98,232	95,003	17.2	Mexico	3,931	4,115 0.7
ex USSR	109,600	80,000	14.5	Saudi Arabia	3,600	4,000 0.7
India	49,850	54,522	9.9	Denmark	3,953	3,629 0.7
United States	74,475	53,915	9.8	Brazil	3,094	3,077 0.6
France	33,312	34,483	6.3	Greece	1,965	2,750 0.5
Canada	32,789	32,822	6.0	South Africa	1,702	2,245 0.4
Turkey	20,000	20,400	3.7	Syria	2,070	2,135 0.4
Germany	15,242	16,669	3.0	Tunisia	1,122	1,786 0.3
Pakistan	14,316	14,505	2.6	Algeria	1,005	1,744 0.3
Great Britain (UK)	14,000	14,300	2.6	Afghanistan	1,650	1,726 0.3
Australia	15,402	9,633	1.7	Belgium-Luxembourg	1,409	1,620 0.3
Italy	8,109	9,289	1.7	Chile	1,718	1,589 0.3
Poland	9,026	9,269	1.7	Sweden	2,243	1,524 0.3
Argentina	11,014	9,000	1.6	Austria	1,404	1,341 0.2
Iran	8,218	8,900	1.6	Bangladesh	890	1,004 0.2
ex Yugoslavia	6,359	6,530	1.2	Netherlands	1,076	916 0.2
ex Czechoslovakia	6,707	6,205	1.1	Ethiopia	867	890 0.2
Hungary	6,198	5,954	1.1	Japan	952	860 0.2
Romania	7,290	5,442	1.0	Nepal	855	836 0.2
Spain	4,760	5,392	1.0	Ireland	625	703 0.1
Morocco	3,614	4,939	0.9	Switzerland	563	574 0.1
Bulgaria	5,292	4,503	0.8	Mongolia	467	536 0.1

RICE (in thousands of metric tons)						
	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod. % 1991
World Total	521,703	519,869	100.0	Nigeria	2,500	3,185 0.6
China	191,197	187,450	36.1	Egypt	3,167	3,152 0.6
India	111,953	110,945	21.3	Cambodia	2,500	2,400 0.5
Indonesia	45,179	44,321	8.5	Sri Lanka	2,538	2,397 0.5
Bangladesh	26,778	28,575	5.5	ex USSR	2,473	2,200 0.4
Thailand	17,300	20,040	3.9	Madagascar	2,420	2,200 0.4
Vietnam	19,225	19,428	3.7	Iran	2,273	2,100 0.4
Myanmar (Burma)	13,969	13,201	2.5	Colombia	2,117	1,739 0.3
Japan	13,124	12,005	2.3	Malaysia	1,655	1,550 0.3
Philippines	9,319	9,670	1.9	Italy	1,291	1,236 0.2
Brazil	7,419	9,503	1.8	Ecuador	840	841 0.2
Korea, South	7,732	7,478	1.4	Peru	966	814 0.2
United States	7,080	7,006	1.3	Australia	924	726 0.1
Korea, North	5,300	5,100	1.0	Ivory Coast	687	690 0.1
Pakistan	4,897	4,903	0.9	Tanzania	740	664 0.1
Nepal	3,502	3,600	0.7	Spain	569	582 0.1

CORN (in thousands of metric tons)						
	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod. % 1991
World Total	479,340	478,775	100.0	Brazil	21,339	22,604 4.7
United States	201,508	189,867	39.7	Mexico	14,635	13,527 2.8
China	97,158	93,350	19.5			(continues)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
France	9,291	12,787	2.7	Philippines	4,854	4,655	1.0
Romania	6,810	10,493	2.2	Korea, North	4,400	4,500	0.9
<i>ex Yugoslavia</i>	6,724	8,800	1.8	Thailand	3,722	3,990	0.8
<i>ex USSR</i>	9,900	8,500	1.8	Spain	3,086	3,151	0.7
South Africa	8,900	8,200	1.7	Bulgaria	1,221	2,718	0.6
India	9,073	8,200	1.7	Tanzania	2,445	2,332	0.5
Argentina	5,049	7,768	1.6	Kenya	2,630	2,250	0.5
Hungary	4,500	7,509	1.6	Turkey	2,100	2,100	0.4
Canada	7,157	7,319	1.5	Germany	1,552	1,928	0.4
Indonesia	6,734	6,409	1.3	Nigeria	1,832	1,900	0.4
Italy	5,864	6,208	1.3	Greece	1,992	1,700	0.4
Egypt	4,799	5,270	1.1	Malawi	1,343	1,590	0.3

## BARLEY (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	181,946	169,385	100.0	China	3,000	3,000	1.8
<i>ex USSR</i>	56,600	42,000	24.8	Romania	2,680	2,951	1.7
Germany	13,992	14,449	8.5	Sweden	2,123	1,869	1.1
Canada	13,925	12,463	7.4	Italy	1,703	1,774	1.0
France	10,020	10,651	6.3	Algeria	833	1,751	1.0
United States	9,192	10,113	6.0	Finland	1,720	1,749	1.0
Spain	9,415	9,141	5.4	India	1,486	1,642	1.0
Turkey	7,300	7,800	4.6	Hungary	1,369	1,552	0.9
Great Britain (UK)	7,900	7,700	4.5	Bulgaria	1,387	1,495	0.9
Denmark	4,987	4,978	2.9	Austria	1,521	1,360	0.8
Poland	4,217	4,257	2.5	Ireland	1,380	1,281	0.8
Australia	4,055	4,025	2.4	Ethiopia	899	965	0.6
<i>ex Czechoslovakia</i>	4,071	3,793	2.2	Syria	846	950	0.6
Iran	3,360	3,600	2.1	<i>ex Yugoslavia</i>	692	742	0.4
Morocco	2,138	3,252	1.9	Tunisia	477	721	0.4

## OATS (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	42,799	34,186	100.0	France	848	733	2.1
<i>ex USSR</i>	18,800	14,000	41.0	China	600	600	1.8
United States	5,189	3,520	10.3	Norway	601	530	1.6
Canada	2,851	1,894	5.5	Great Britain (UK)	530	527	1.5
Germany	2,105	1,891	5.5	Argentina	434	450	1.3
Poland	2,119	1,873	5.5	Spain	524	410	1.2
Australia	1,568	1,615	4.7	Italy	298	358	1.0
Sweden	1,584	1,412	4.1	<i>ex Czechoslovakia</i>	421	346	1.0
Finland	1,662	1,155	3.4	Brazil	174	303	0.9

## Cash Crops

## SUGAR (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	110,823	112,224	100.0	China	7,197	7,836	7.0
India	11,168	12,528	11.2	Cuba	8,445	7,623	6.8
<i>ex USSR</i>	9,130	8,750	7.8	United States	6,273	6,531	5.8
Brazil	7,835	8,675	7.7				

(continues)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
France	4,743	4,678	4.2	Iran	623	760	0.7
Germany	4,671	4,245	3.8	Hungary	595	736	0.7
Thailand	3,506	4,006	3.6	ex Czechoslovakia	686	714	0.6
Mexico	3,278	3,943	3.5	Morocco	638	675	0.6
Australia	3,536	2,800	2.5	ex Yugoslavia	934	663	0.6
Indonesia	2,218	2,334	2.1	Dominican Republic	590	656	0.6
South Africa	2,289	2,152	1.9	Mauritius	624	580	0.5
Pakistan	2,017	2,086	1.9	Venezuela	499	556	0.5
Turkey	1,946	1,957	1.7	Peru	601	550	0.5
Philippines	1,810	1,780	1.6	Kenya	467	532	0.5
Italy	1,584	1,640	1.5	Denmark	572	500	0.4
Colombia	1,589	1,617	1.4	Swaziland	527	500	0.4
Argentina	1,351	1,594	1.4	Sudan	421	470	0.4
Poland	2,142	1,587	1.4	Austria	451	462	0.4
Great Britain (UK)	1,349	1,292	1.2	Fiji	408	389	0.3
Netherlands	1,337	1,060	0.9	Vietnam	376	380	0.3
Egypt	971	1,046	0.9	Chile	373	359	0.3
Spain	1,043	1,037	0.9	Bolivia	271	355	0.3
Guatemala	839	918	0.8	Zimbabwe	464	329	0.3
Japan	925	915	0.8	Ecuador	311	319	0.3
Belgium-Luxembourg	1,120	905	0.8	Romania	405	310	0.3

## TEA (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	2,533	2,576	100.0	Iran	44	45	1.7
India	715	730	28.3	Malawi	39	41	1.6
China	562	566	22.0	Bangladesh	39	38	1.5
Sri Lanka	238	241	9.4	Vietnam	31	32	1.2
Kenya	197	204	7.9	Tanzania	20	21	0.8
Indonesia	149	158	6.1	Zimbabwe	17	16	0.6
Turkey	123	136	5.3	South Africa	13	14	0.5
ex USSR	136	118	4.6	Rwanda	13	13	0.5
Japan	90	90	3.5	Brazil	10	10	0.4
Argentina	43	48	1.9	Uganda	7	8	0.3

## COFFEE (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	6,282	6,088	100.0	Honduras	118	122	2.0
Brazil	1,463	1,497	24.6	Ecuador	135	114	1.9
Colombia	845	870	14.3	Philippines	134	113	1.9
Indonesia	411	408	6.7	Zaire	120	102	1.7
Mexico	440	299	4.9	Kenya	105	90	1.5
Vietnam	260	285	4.7	Peru	81	82	1.3
Ivory Coast	284	240	3.9	Madagascar	80	80	1.3
Guatemala	202	195	3.2	Venezuela	76	66	1.1
Uganda	129	180	3.0	Papua New Guinea	67	62	1.0
India	118	173	2.8	Cameroon	102	58	1.0
Ethiopia	206	168	2.8	Tanzania	52	56	0.9
Costa Rica	151	158	2.6	Thailand	61	55	0.9
El Salvador	136	149	2.4				



	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
Dominican Republic	59	46	0.8	Haiti	37	37	0.6
Rwanda	45	43	0.7	China	33	35	0.6
Burundi	34	38	0.6	Bolivia	29	30	0.5

## COCOA (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	2,528	2,455	100.0	Cameroon	99	95	3.9
Ivory Coast	750	710	28.9	Colombia	56	59	2.4
Brazil	355	345	14.1	Dominican Republic	59	50	2.0
Ghana	295	295	12.0	Mexico	46	39	1.6
Malaysia	235	225	9.2	Papua New Guinea	40	33	1.3
Indonesia	154	214	8.7	Sierra Leone	24	24	1.0
Ecuador	147	136	5.5	Venezuela	16	15	0.6
Nigeria	150	115	4.7	Peru	11	11	0.4

## TOBACCO (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	7,076	7,662	100.0	Korea, South	70	73	1.0
China	2,617	3,121	40.7	Japan	78	71	0.9
United States	738	753	9.8	Thailand	71	71	0.9
India	550	560	7.3	Canada	63	68	0.9
Brazil	444	414	5.4	Korea, North	65	66	0.9
Turkey	288	247	3.2	Poland	59	57	0.7
ex USSR	260	240	3.1	ex Yugoslavia	46	46	0.6
Italy	194	192	2.5	Cuba	44	44	0.6
Zimbabwe	140	178	2.3	Spain	36	43	0.6
Greece	130	178	2.3	Myanmar (Burma)	40	40	0.5
Indonesia	150	159	2.1	Colombia	33	40	0.5
Malawi	101	125	1.6	Bangladesh	38	36	0.5
Argentina	68	94	1.2	South Africa	34	35	0.5
Philippines	82	79	1.0	Romania	32	34	0.4
Pakistan	68	76	1.0	Vietnam	18	28	0.4
Bulgaria	77	74	1.0	France	28	27	0.4

## WINE (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	29,010	27,767	100.0	Greece	353	450	1.6
France	6,553	6,200	22.3	Australia	445	400	1.4
Italy	5,487	5,915	21.3	Chile	398	390	1.4
Spain	4,090	3,107	11.2	Brazil	311	311	1.1
ex USSR	1,570	1,800	6.5	Austria	317	300	1.1
United States	1,585	1,490	5.4	Bulgaria	293	293	1.1
Argentina	1,910	1,465	5.3	Mexico	163	145	0.5
Germany (ex GFR)	949	1,015	3.7	ex Czechoslovakia	142	134	0.5
Portugal	1,097	991	3.6	Switzerland	120	124	0.4
South Africa	952	963	3.5	China	90	95	0.3
Romania	598	600	2.2	Uruguay	90	80	0.3
Hungary	547	547	2.0	Cyprus	60	60	0.2
ex Yugoslavia	517	500	1.8	Japan	55	55	0.2

## BEER (in thousands of gallons)

	1987 Prod.	1988 Prod.	% 1988		1987 Prod.	1988 Prod.	% 1988
World Total	26,310,489	27,462,190	100.0	Romania	280,950	290,600(*)	1.1
United States	6,058,661	6,129,043	22.3	Korea, South	232,205	272,443	1.0
Germany	2,934,998	2,947,547	10.7	Hungary	238,969	249,009	0.9
China	1,427,816	1,733,152	6.3	Denmark	231,281	242,007	0.9
Great Britain (UK)	1,582,426	1,589,322	5.8	Austria	228,216	236,142	0.9
Japan	1,451,039	1,547,472	5.6	Peru	226,261	186,182	0.7
ex USSR	1,339,785	1,474,527	5.4	Bulgaria	164,121	167,291	0.6
Brazil	895,453	962,877	3.5	Portugal	131,492	144,306	0.5
Mexico	831,754	878,756	3.2	Argentina	154,848	138,229	0.5
Spain	654,899	660,500(*)	2.4	Cameroon	154,742	134,874	0.5
Canada	634,000(*)	634,000(*)	2.3	Ireland	115,191	122,166	0.4
ex Czechoslovakia	587,264	598,941	2.2	Sweden	108,481	111,000(*)	0.4
Australia	491,121	499,655	1.8	Switzerland	106,869	106,600(*)	0.4
South Africa	441,478	478,995	1.8	New Zealand	107,979	103,699	0.4
Netherlands	463,671	463,143	1.7	Finland	92,708	99,127	0.4
Colombia	405,679	422,720	1.5	Cuba	86,869	87,820	0.3
Belgium	369,563	364,385	1.3	Kenya	81,294	83,012	0.3
Poland	314,319	329,880	1.2	Turkey	64,465	70,568	0.3
ex Yugoslavia	318,467	316,247	1.2				
Italy	303,909	306,181	1.1				

(\*) Provisional data

## Tubers, Vegetables, and Fruits

## POTATOES (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	268,107	261,162	100.0	ex Czechoslovakia	2,534	2,713	1.0
ex USSR	63,700	64,500	24.7	Argentina	2,500	2,600	1.0
China	32,031	35,533	13.6	Iran	2,475	2,500	1.0
Poland	36,313	29,038	11.1	Colombia	2,464	2,372	0.9
United States	18,239	18,970	7.3	Italy	2,309	2,227	0.9
India	14,770	15,254	5.8	Brazil	2,219	2,214	0.8
Germany	14,039	10,225	3.9	ex Yugoslavia	2,172	2,180	0.8
Netherlands	7,036	6,735	2.6	Korea, North	2,100	1,975	0.8
Great Britain (UK)	6,504	6,700	2.6	Belgium-Luxembourg	1,750	1,950	0.7
France	5,800	6,300	2.4	Romania	3,186	1,900	0.7
Spain	5,342	5,333	2.0	Denmark	1,483	1,511	0.6
Turkey	4,300	4,600	1.8	Peru	1,154	1,450	0.6
Japan	3,552	3,700	1.4	South Africa	1,247	1,250	0.5
Canada	2,959	2,781	1.1	Hungary	1,226	1,226	0.5

## DRIED LEGUMES (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	58,846	59,902	100.0	Mexico	1,520	1,661	2.8
India	12,931	14,007	23.4	Nigeria	1,463	1,559	2.6
ex USSR	9,710	8,320	13.9	Australia	1,342	1,345	2.2
China	6,135	6,315	11.5	Canada	604	884	1.5
France	3,718	3,294	5.5	Pakistan	773	806	1.3
Brazil	2,270	2,748	4.7	Ethiopia	748	763	1.3
Turkey	2,188	1,866	3.1	Great Britain (UK)	749	722	1.2
United States	1,624	1,746	2.9				

(continues)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
Poland	609	668	1.1	Hungary	318	333	0.6
Uganda	524	533	0.9	Korea, North	325	330	0.6
Indonesia	464	508	0.8	ex Czechoslovakia	254	316	0.5
Bangladesh	514	507	0.8	Iran	292	309	0.5
Myanmar (Burma)	425	484	0.8	Nepal	178	279	0.5
Thailand	459	474	0.8	Argentina	239	274	0.5
Morocco	414	439	0.7	Malawi	283	271	0.5
Tanzania	406	424	0.7	Rwanda	238	250	0.4
Denmark	551	410	0.7	Kenya	235	240	0.4
Niger	413	387	0.6	Spain	252	215	0.4
Egypt	531	381	0.6	Italy	199	208	0.3

## CITRUS FRUITS (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	72,997	77,322	100.0	Egypt	2,240	2,284	3.0
Brazil	18,606	20,048	25.9	Iran	1,998	2,110	2.7
United States	9,916	10,366	13.4	Turkey	1,696	1,696	2.2
China	5,781	6,305	8.2	Pakistan	1,588	1,599	2.1
Spain	4,684	4,378	5.7	Argentina	1,620	1,590	2.1
Italy	2,815	3,308	4.3	Morocco	1,038	1,288	1.7
Mexico	1,974	3,162	4.1	Israel	1,505	1,124	1.5
Japan	2,294	2,670	3.5	Cuba	1,017	1,013	1.3
India	2,525	2,595	3.4	Greece	1,160	939	1.2

## BANANAS (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	46,923	47,660	100.0	Indonesia	2,360	2,400	5.0
India	6,655	6,400	13.4	China	1,657	2,105	4.4
Brazil	5,502	5,630	11.8	Mexico	1,591	1,868	3.9
Philippines	3,409	3,545	7.4	Colombia	1,600	1,630	3.4
Ecuador	3,055	2,954	6.2	Thailand	1,613	1,620	3.4

## PEARS (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	9,509	9,359	100.0	Korea, North	115	120	1.3
China	2,483	2,728	29.1	India	105	115	1.2
Italy	968	864	9.2	Austria	100	98	1.0
United States	874	824	8.8	Netherlands	90	96	1.0
ex USSR	500	500	5.3	Switzerland	86	95	1.0
Japan	443	420	4.5	Greece	107	95	1.0
Turkey	413	420	4.5	Portugal	94	90	1.0
Spain	449	412	4.4	Egypt	75	76	0.8
France	331	280	3.0	Romania	74	65	0.7
Argentina	210	220	2.4	Hungary	64	64	0.7
Germany	380	210	2.2	Belgium-Luxembourg	59	60	0.6
South Africa	203	204	2.2	Bulgaria	62	57	0.6
ex Yugoslavia	164	170	1.8	Poland	35	53	0.6
Korea, South	159	165	1.8	Mexico	45	44	0.5
Chile	140	163	1.7	Morocco	41	44	0.5
Iran	125	130	1.4	ex Czechoslovakia	40	43	0.5
Australia	171	124	1.3				

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
Algeria	38	40	0.4	Syria	20	23	0.2
Great Britain (UK)	37	39	0.4	Brazil	18	18	0.2
Pakistan	33	34	0.4	New Zealand	15	16	0.2
Tunisia	25	30	0.3	Canada	17	15	0.2
Lebanon	24	25	0.3	Israel	19	15	0.2

## PEACHES (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	8,902	8,682	100.0	Hungary	72	72	0.8
Italy	1,720	1,389	16.0	Australia	68	72	0.8
United States	1,181	1,316	15.2	Bulgaria	80	70	0.8
Greece	756	824	9.5	Syria	66	60	0.7
China	786	808	9.3	Romania	53	40	0.5
Spain	629	691	8.0	Algeria	37	40	0.5
France	492	450	5.2	Israel	44	39	0.4
ex USSR	450	420	4.8	Canada	47	36	0.4
Turkey	350	360	4.1	Egypt	35	36	0.4
Argentina	250	200	2.3	Morocco	30	32	0.4
Japan	190	193	2.2	Tunisia	25	27	0.3
Chile	215	180	2.1	New Zealand	27	26	0.3
Mexico	175	175	2.0	Peru	24	25	0.3
Iran	175	175	2.0	Iraq	29	24	0.8
South Africa	146	153	1.8	Pakistan	22	23	0.3
Korea, South	115	122	1.4	Bolivia	20	22	0.3
Korea, North	105	110	1.3	ex Czechoslovakia	22	15	0.2
Brazil	100	105	1.2	Uruguay	15	14	0.2
Portugal	89	90	1.0	Lebanon	12	13	0.1
ex Yugoslavia	85	80	0.9	Libya	11	12	0.1
India	70	75	0.9	Germany	28	11	0.1

## PLUMS (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Pr	
World Total	5,736	5,651	100.0	India	50	52	0.9
ex USSR	1,000	950	16.8	Syria	43	50	0.9
China	875	946	16.7	ex Czechoslovakia	41	47	0.8
United States	665	705	12.5	Egypt	45	46	0.8
ex Yugoslavia	499	550	9.7	Austria	26	40	0.7
Romania	450	360	6.4	Algeria	33	35	0.6
Germany	337	233	4.1	Afghanistan	34	34	0.6
Turkey	188	190	3.4	Iraq	35	27	0.5
France	189	190	3.4	Korea, South	25	26	0.5
Spain	120	148	2.6	Israel	25	25	0.4
Italy	139	121	2.1	Great Britain (UK)	8	25	0.4
Hungary	152	110	1.9	Australia	20	20	0.4
Bulgaria	123	103	1.8	South Africa	18	18	0.3
Chile	88	101	1.8	Lebanon	15	16	0.3
Mexico	86	87	1.5	Norway	13	13	0.2
Poland	43	67	1.2	Switzerland	13	11	0.2
Japan	97	65	1.2	Portugal	9	11	0.2
Argentina	58	52	1.0	Greece	8	8	0.1
Pakistan	51	52	0.9	Albania	10	7	0.1
Morocco	50	52	0.9	Tunisia	7	7	0.1

## Oilseeds

## COTTONSEED (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	33,930	38,052	100.0	Mali	121	180	0.5
China	9,016	11,326	29.8	Nigeria	180	180	0.5
United States	5,415	6,132	16.1	Ivory Coast	137	168	0.4
ex USSR	5,065	4,700	12.4	Sudan	165	162	0.4
Pakistan	3,275	4,225	11.1	Spain	121	132	0.3
India	3,322	3,404	8.9	Zimbabwe	113	125	0.3
Brazil	1,088	1,130	3.0	Tanzania	91	124	0.3
Turkey	977	904	2.4	Peru	150	115	0.3
Australia	493	689	1.8	Chad	95	100	0.3
Egypt	504	485	1.3	Burkina Faso	98	98	0.3
Argentina	450	485	1.3	South Africa	95	95	0.2
Paraguay	365	410	1.1	Benin	80	93	0.2
Greece	420	365	1.0	Thailand	64	69	0.2
Syria	274	344	0.9	Cameroon	69	65	0.2
Mexico	294	309	0.8	Mozambique	64	60	0.2
Colombia	265	278	0.7	Guatemala	57	60	0.2
Iran	250	268	0.7	Togo	38	55	0.1

## LINSEED (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	2,821	2,623	100.0	Egypt	20	22	0.8
Canada	935	691	26.3	Brazil	20	20	0.8
China	430	410	15.6	Afghanistan	14	14	0.5
Argentina	440	375	14.3	ex Czechoslovakia	16	13	0.5
India	326	339	12.9	Hungary	10	11	0.4
Great Britain (UK)	70	185	7.1	Belgium-Luxembourg	9	9	0.3
United States	97	155	5.9	Netherlands	8	9	0.3
ex USSR	197	140	5.3	Australia	6	6	0.2
Romania	50	52	2.0	Poland	11	5	0.2
Bangladesh	48	45	1.7	Pakistan	4	5	0.2
France	40	44	1.7	Tunisia	4	4	0.2
Ethiopia	27	29	1.1	Uruguay	1	4	0.2
Nepal	26	26	1.0	Mexico	3	3	0.1

## SOYBEANS (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	108,134	103,065	100.0	Italy	1,751	1,325	1.3
United States	52,416	54,039	52.4	Paraguay	1,795	1,304	1.3
Brazil	19,888	14,771	14.3	ex USSR	880	760	0.7
Argentina	10,700	11,250	10.9	Mexico	575	718	0.7
China	11,008	9,807	9.5	Thailand	578	605	0.6
India	2,419	2,100	2.0	Korea, North	455	460	0.4
Indonesia	1,487	1,349	1.5	Bolivia	233	384	0.4
Canada	1,292	1,406	1.4	Japan	220	280	0.3

## PEANUTS (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	23,410	23,366	100.0	Nigeria	1,166	1,219	5.2
India	7,622	7,000	30.0	Indonesia	930	920	3.9
China	6,433	6,060	25.9	Senegal	703	700	3.0
United States	1,634	2,242	9.6	Myanmar (Burma)	459	505	2.2

## OLIVE OIL (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	1,573	2,007	100.0	Portugal	27	26	1.3
Italy	175	685	34.1	Algeria	8	16	0.8
Spain	679	608	30.3	Jordan	8	11	0.5
Greece	188	355	17.7	Libya	10	10	0.5
Turkey	110	96	4.8	Argentina	8	9	0.4
Tunisia	182	75	3.7	Lebanon	5	4	0.2
Morocco	43	53	2.6	Albania	4	3	0.1
Syria	91	43	2.1	ex Yugoslavia	6	3	0.1

## PALM OIL (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	11,163	11,873	100.0	Papua New Guinea	114	114	1.0
Malaysia	6,095	6,145	51.8	Cameroon	108	105	0.9
Indonesia	2,186	2,700	22.7	Ghana	85	87	0.7
Nigeria	820	900	7.6	Honduras	78	80	0.7
Colombia	252	268	2.3	Brazil	66	70	0.6
Thailand	226	234	2.0	Costa Rica	60	64	0.5
Ivory Coast	208	218	1.8	Sierra Leone	56	59	0.5
Zaire	180	182	1.5	Guinea	50	51	0.4
Ecuador	150	156	1.3	Angola	40	40	0.3
China	133	140	1.2	Benin	40	40	0.3

## Textile Fibers

## COTTON FIBER (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	18,447	20,641	100.0	Colombia	140	142	0.7
China	4,508	5,663	27.4	Ivory Coast	116	133	0.6
United States	3,375	3,919	19.0	Mali	99	115	0.6
ex USSR	2,634	2,420	11.7	Sudan	83	91	0.4
Pakistan	1,637	2,112	10.2	Spain	75	83	0.4
India	1,659	1,700	8.2	Burkina Faso	77	77	0.4
Brazil	660	700	3.4	Zimbabwe	67	73	0.4
Turkey	611	565	2.7	Benin	59	67	0.3
Australia	305	433	2.1	Peru	73	65	0.3
Egypt	303	294	1.4	Tanzania	47	64	0.3
Argentina	270	290	1.4	South Africa	53	61	0.3
Paraguay	215	259	1.3	Chad	60	60	0.3
Mexico	201	202	1.0	Nigeria	36	45	0.2
Syria	159	200	1.0	Guatemala	41	38	0.2
Greece	209	190	0.9	Cameroon	44	35	0.2
Iran	138	146	0.7	Thailand	32	35	0.2



## FLAX (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	719	716	100.0	Egypt	14	15	2.1
ex USSR	245	270	37.7	ex Czechoslovakia	22	8	1.1
China	243	242	33.8	Poland	16	5	0.7
France	77	79	11.0	Argentina	2	2	0.3
Romania	39	40	5.6	Chile	2	3	0.3
Netherlands	40	35	4.9	Hungary	1	1	0.1
Belgium-Luxembourg	16	17	2.4	Bulgaria	2	1	0.1

## JUTE (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	3,669	3,682	100.0	ex USSR	49	52	1.4
India	1,638	1,620	44.0	Vietnam	29	32	0.9
Bangladesh	879	977	26.5	Myanmar (Burma)	34	29	0.8
China	726	680	18.5	Indonesia	18	19	0.5
Thailand	205	189	5.1	Brazil	22	16	0.4

## HEMP (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	206	205	100.0	Pakistan	5	5	2.4
China	72	68	33.2	Turkey	4	4	2.0
India	40	40	19.5	Chile	4	4	2.0
Romania	38	40	19.5	ex Czechoslovakia	3	3	1.5
ex USSR	25	25	12.2	Hungary	2	2	1.0
Korea, North	10	10	4.9	ex Yugoslavia	2	2	1.0

## SISAL (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	377	386	100.0	Tanzania	38	40	10.4
Brazil	185	185	47.9	Kenya	40	39	10.1
Mexico	39	45	11.7	Madagascar	21	21	5.4

## WOOL - washed wool (in thousands of metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	1,897	1,839	100.0	Romania	27	28	1.5
Australia	548	548	29.8	Turkey	24	28	1.5
ex USSR	283	268	14.6	India	22	23	1.3
New Zealand	272	226	12.3	United States	21	22	1.2
China	122	123	6.7	Syria	18	19	1.0
Argentina	75	67	3.6	Spain	18	18	1.0
Uruguay	59	64	3.5	Brazil	17	18	1.0
Great Britain (UK)	53	53	2.9	Iran	18	18	1.0
South Africa	50	51	2.8	Morocco	17	17	0.9
Pakistan	37	39	2.1	Bulgaria	14	17	0.9

	SILK (in metric tons)						
	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	86,474	90,872	100.0	Thailand	1,250	1,300	1.43
China	55,047	58,051	63.88	Iran	537	537	0.59
India	11,000	11,900	13.10	Vietnam	500	500	0.55
Japan	6,000	6,000	6.60	Turkey	270	270	0.30
Korea, North	4,200	4,400	4.84	Romania	150	150	0.17
ex USSR	4,094	4,100	4.51	Bulgaria	150	150	0.17
Brazil	1,693	1,929	2.12	Afghanistan	60	60	0.07
Korea, South	1,400	1,400	1.54	ex Yugoslavia	45	45	0.05

## Wood and Wood Products

## WOODLAND AND FOREST AREAS (in thousands of square miles)

	Total area	Forest area (1990)	% total area	% world total		Total area	Forest area (1990)	% total area	% world total
World Total	51,698	15,547	30.1	100.0	Argentina	1,068	229	21.4	1.5
ex USSR	8,648	3,655	42.3	23.5	Bolivia	424	215	50.6	1.4
Brazil	3,286	1,903	57.9	12.2	Angola	481	201	41.7	1.3
Canada	3,851	1,386	36.0	8.9	Colombia	440	194	44.2	1.2
United States	3,618	1,133	31.3	7.3	Sudan	967	173	17.9	1.1
Zaire	905	673	74.3	4.3	Mexico	756	164	21.7	1.1
China	3,704	488	13.2	3.1	Tanzania	365	158	43.3	1.0
Indonesia	735	438	59.5	2.8	Papua New Guinea	179	147	82.5	0.9
Australia	2,977	409	13.7	2.6	Central Afr. Rep.	241	138	57.5	0.9
Peru	496	264	53.2	1.7	Myanmar (Burma)	261	125	47.9	0.8
India	1,269	257	20.3	1.7					

## WOOD (in thousands of cubic feet)

	1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989		1987 Prod.	1988 Prod.	% 1988
World Total	121,187,300	122,242,559	100.0	Finland	1,581,511	1,633,049	1.3
United States	18,701,763	18,820,830	15.4	Malaysia	1,704,990	1,783,956	1.5
ex USSR	13,897,610	13,488,130	11.0	France	1,543,563	1,543,563	1.3
China	9,744,953	9,693,027	7.9	Ethiopia	1,371,017	1,399,292	1.1
India	9,333,744	9,511,620	7.8	Philippines	1,352,343	1,359,156	1.1
Brazil	8,883,280	9,017,562	7.4	Thailand	1,348,954	1,348,954	1.1
Canada	6,352,482	6,247,253	5.1	Kenya	1,206,660	1,258,445	1.0
Indonesia	6,128,009	6,203,269	5.1	Germany (ex GFR)	1,156,534	1,247,220	1.0
Nigeria	3,702,299	3,822,919	3.1	Zaire	1,208,637	1,247,784	1.0
Sweden	1,903,517	1,966,351	1.6	Tanzania	1,128,012	1,168,536	1.0

## WOOD PULP (in thousands of metric tons)

	1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989		1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989
World Total	152,713	153,706	100.0	Finland	9,001	9,118	5.9
United States	55,530	56,225	36.6	Brazil	4,375	4,304	2.8
Canada	23,550	23,593	15.3	Germany (ex GFR)	2,358	2,418	1.6
ex USSR	11,818	11,326	7.4	Norway	2,103	2,224	1.4
Japan	10,406	10,409	6.8	France	2,058	2,135	1.4
Sweden	10,074	10,052	6.5	China	1,778	1,791	1.2

**PAPER (in thousands of metric tons)**

	<b>Newsprint</b>	<b>Other</b>	<b>1989 total</b>	<b>% 1989</b>		<b>Newsprint</b>	<b>Other</b>	<b>1989 total</b>	<b>% 1989</b>
<b>World Total</b>	32,314	198,648	230,962	90.1	<b>Finland</b>	1,298	7,454	8,752	3.4
<b>United States</b>	5,523	63,991	69,514	27.1	<b>Sweden</b>	2,165	6,197	8,362	3.3
<b>Japan</b>	3,217	23,592	26,809	10.5	<b>France</b>	379	6,375	6,754	2.6
<b>Canada</b>	9,678	6,877	16,555	6.5	<b>Italy</b>	258	5,297	5,555	2.2
<b>China</b>	718	14,618	15,336	6.0	<b>Brazil</b>	230	4,576	4,806	1.9
<b>Germany</b>					<b>Great Britain</b>	572	3,903	4,475	1.7
<b>(ex GFR)</b>	991	10,268	11,259	4.4	<b>Korea, South</b>	444	3,574	4,018	1.6
<b>ex USSR</b>	1,719	8,935	10,654	4.2	<b>Spain</b>	165	3,281	3,446	1.3

**NATURAL RUBBER (in thousands of metric tons)**

	<b>1990 Prod.</b>	<b>1991 Prod.</b>	<b>% 1991</b>		<b>1990 Prod.</b>	<b>1991 Prod.</b>	<b>% 1991</b>
<b>World Total</b>	4,922	5,092	100.0	<b>Sri Lanka</b>	113	102	2.0
<b>Indonesia</b>	1,246	1,284	25.2	<b>Ivory Coast</b>	74	74	1.5
<b>Malaysia</b>	1,292	1,250	24.5	<b>Vietnam</b>	52	55	1.1
<b>Thailand</b>	1,100	1,200	23.6	<b>Cameroon</b>	38	40	0.8
<b>India</b>	297	330	6.5	<b>Brazil</b>	33	35	0.7
<b>China</b>	264	280	5.5	<b>Cambodia</b>	38	30	0.6
<b>Philippines</b>	185	201	3.9	<b>Guatemala</b>	18	18	0.4
<b>Nigeria</b>	88	137	2.7	<b>Myanmar (Burma)</b>	15	15	0.3

**Livestock and Fishing****MEADOWS AND PASTURELAND (in thousands of square miles)**

	<b>Total area</b>	<b>Pasture area (1990)</b>	<b>% total area (1990)</b>	<b>% world total</b>		<b>Total area</b>	<b>Pasture area (1990)</b>	<b>% total area (1990)</b>	<b>% world total</b>
<b>World Total</b>	51,692	13,132	25.4	100.0	<b>Mexico</b>	756	288	38.0	2.2
<b>Australia</b>	2,977	1,612	54.1	12.3	<b>Chad</b>	496	174	35.0	1.3
<b>China</b>	3,704	1,544	41.7	11.8	<b>Ethiopia</b>	472	173	36.7	1.3
<b>ex USSR</b>	8,648	1,425	16.5	10.9	<b>Iran</b>	636	170	26.7	1.3
<b>Brazil</b>	3,286	711	21.6	5.4	<b>Mozambique</b>	310	170	54.9	1.3
<b>Argentina</b>	1,068	549	51.4	4.2	<b>Colombia</b>	440	156	35.5	1.2
<b>Mongolia</b>	604	480	79.4	3.7	<b>Mauritania</b>	396	152	38.3	1.2
<b>Sudan</b>	967	425	43.9	3.3	<b>Namibia</b>	318	147	46.1	1.1
<b>Saudi Arabia</b>	830	328	39.5	2.5	<b>Tanzania</b>	365	135	37.0	1.0
<b>South Africa</b>	471	314	66.7	2.4	<b>Botswana</b>	225	127	56.7	1.0

**CATTLE (in thousands of head)**

	<b>1990</b>	<b>1991</b>	<b>% 1991</b>		<b>1990</b>	<b>1991</b>	<b>% 1991</b>
<b>World Total</b>	1,293,641	1,294,604	100.0	<b>Ethiopia</b>	30,000	30,000	2.3
<b>India</b>	197,300	198,400	15.3	<b>Mexico</b>	32,054	29,847	2.3
<b>Brazil</b>	148,000	152,000	11.7	<b>Colombia</b>	24,550	24,875	1.9
<b>ex USSR</b>	118,400	115,600	8.9	<b>Bangladesh</b>	23,244	23,500	1.8
<b>United States</b>	98,162	98,896	7.6	<b>Australia</b>	23,191	23,430	1.8
<b>China</b>	79,493	81,407	6.3	<b>France</b>	21,419	21,446	1.7
<b>Argentina</b>	50,582	50,080	3.9				

(continues)

	1990	1991	% 1991		1990	1991	% 1991
Sudan	20,583	21,028	1.6	Indonesia	10,550	10,350	0.8
Germany	20,287	19,488	1.5	Madagascar	10,254	10,265	0.8
Pakistan	17,573	17,785	1.4	Myanmar (Burma)	9,298	9,310	0.7
Nigeria	13,947	14,500	1.1	Uruguay	8,723	8,889	0.7
Kenya	13,793	13,700	1.1	Poland	10,049	8,844	0.7
Venezuela	13,272	13,686	1.1	Italy	8,746	8,647	0.7
South Africa	13,398	13,512	1.0	Paraguay	8,254	8,260	0.6
Tanzania	13,047	13,138	1.0	New Zealand	8,065	8,200	0.6
Canada	12,249	12,369	1.0	Iran	6,650	6,800	0.5
Great Britain (UK)	11,922	11,846	0.9	Nepal	6,281	6,350	0.5
Turkey	12,173	11,377	0.9	Ireland	5,899	6,029	0.5

## SHEEP (in thousands of head)

	1990	1991	% 1991		1990	1991	% 1991
World Total	1,215,633	1,202,920	100.0	Ethiopia	22,960	23,000	1.9
Australia	170,297	162,774	13.5	Sudan	20,168	20,700	1.7
ex USSR	138,400	134,000	11.1	Brazil	20,100	20,300	1.7
China	113,508	112,820	9.4	Syria	14,509	15,321	1.3
New Zealand	57,852	57,000	4.7	Mongolia	14,265	15,083	1.3
India	54,588	55,700	4.6	Romania	15,435	14,062	1.2
Iran	45,000	45,000	3.7	Morocco	14,000	14,000	1.2
Turkey	43,647	40,553	3.4	Somalia	14,000	13,800	1.1
South Africa	32,665	32,580	2.7	Afghanistan	13,500	13,500	1.1
Pakistan	29,239	30,160	2.5	Algeria	13,350	13,350	1.1
Great Britain (UK)	29,521	29,954	2.5	Bolivia	12,220	12,300	1.0
Argentina	28,571	27,552	2.3	Italy	11,569	11,575	1.0
Uruguay	25,220	25,986	2.2	France	11,790	11,490	1.0
Spain	24,037	24,500	2.0	Peru	12,257	11,250	0.9
Nigeria	22,104	24,000	2.0	United States	11,364	11,200	0.9

## GOATS (in thousands of head)

	1990	1991	% 1991		1990	1991	% 1991
World Total	587,065	594,286	100.0	Turkey	11,942	10,977	1.8
India	110,000	112,000	18.8	Mexico	10,439	10,772	1.8
China	98,313	97,378	16.4	Tanzania	8,526	8,814	1.5
Pakistan	35,412	36,673	6.2	Kenya	8,000	8,100	1.4
Nigeria	34,495	36,000	6.1	ex USSR	7,000	6,600	1.1
Iran	23,500	23,500	4.0	Burkina Faso	5,700	6,137	1.0
Bangladesh	21,031	22,000	3.7	Greece	5,904	5,918	1.0
Somalia	21,000	20,500	3.4	South Africa	5,880	5,900	1.0
Ethiopia	17,200	18,000	3.0	Mali	5,850	5,850	1.0
Sudan	14,843	15,227	2.6	Nepal	5,324	5,355	0.9
Brazil	12,000	12,500	2.1	Morocco	5,300	5,300	0.9
Indonesia	11,250	11,300	1.9	Mongolia	4,959	5,126	0.9

## HORSES (in thousands of head)

	1990	1991	% 1991		1990	1991	% 1991
World Total	61,164	61,620	100.0	Mexico	6,170	6,175	10.0
China	10,294	10,174	16.5	ex USSR	5,920	5,900	9.6
India	6,000	6,200	10.1				(continues)

	1990	1991	% 1991		1990	1991	% 1991
United States	5,400	5,630	9.2	Cuba	629	629	1.0
Argentina	3,400	3,400	5.5	Chile	520	520	0.8
Ethiopia	2,650	2,700	4.4	Turkey	545	513	0.8
Mongolia	2,200	2,255	3.7	Ecuador	492	512	0.8
Colombia	1,975	1,980	3.2	Venezuela	495	495	0.8
India	960	965	1.6	Germany	484	491	0.8
Poland	941	939	1.5	Uruguay	465	470	0.8
Indonesia	740	750	1.2	Pakistan	460	461	0.7
Romania	663	670	1.1	Haiti	435	435	0.7
Peru	660	660	1.1	Canada	415	415	0.7

## PIGS (in thousands of head)

	1990	1991	% 1991		1990	1991	% 1991
World Total	855,870	857,099	100.0	Japan	11,816	11,335	1.3
China	360,594	363,975	42.5	Canada	10,370	10,516	1.2
ex USSR	78,900	75,600	8.8	India	10,400	10,450	1.2
United States	53,821	54,427	6.4	Italy	9,254	9,520	1.1
Brazil	34,000	35,000	4.1	Denmark	9,282	9,489	1.1
Germany	34,178	30,819	3.6	Philippines	8,124	8,007	0.9
Poland	19,464	21,868	2.6	Hungary	7,600	8,000	0.9
Spain	16,002	16,100	1.9	Great Britain (UK)	7,383	7,379	0.9
Mexico	15,203	15,902	1.9	ex Yugoslavia	7,231	7,358	0.9
Netherlands	13,634	13,788	1.6	ex Czechoslovakia	7,498	7,090	0.8
Vietnam	12,221	12,583	1.5	Indonesia	7,650	6,800	0.8
France	12,366	12,239	1.4	Belgium-Luxembourg	6,440	6,421	0.7
Romania	11,671	12,003	1.4	Thailand	4,900	5,000	0.6

## DOMESTIC FOWL (in thousands of head)

	1990	1991	% 1991		1990	1991	% 1991
World Total	11,578	11,978	100.0	Pakistan	170	193	1.6
China	2,347	2,446	20.4	Nigeria	123	170	1.4
United States	1,556	1,623	13.5	Iran	162	167	1.4
ex USSR	1,198	1,206	10.1	Italy	161	162	1.4
Indonesia	609	620	5.2	Malaysia	150	153	1.3
Brazil	561	582	4.9	Great Britain (UK)	131	134	1.1
India	350	380	3.2	Thailand	125	131	1.1
Japan	338	335	2.8	Romania	120	127	1.1
Mexico	248	259	2.2	Canada	116	120	1.0
France	249	258	2.2	Germany	126	112	0.9

## FISH CATCH (in thousands of metric tons)

	1988	1989	% 1989		1988	1989	% 1989
World Total	98,762	99,535	100.0	Japan	11,967	11,174	11.2
ex USSR	14,332	11,310	11.4	Peru	6,638	6,832	6.9
China	10,359	11,220	11.3				(excludes)

	1988	1989	% 1989		1988	1989	% 1989
Chile	5,210	6,454	6.5	Ecuador	771	724	0.7
United States	5,937	5,744	5.8	Myanmar (Burma)	705	703	0.7
India	3,126	3,619	3.6	Malaysia	612	609	0.6
Korea, South	2,727	2,832	2.8	Poland	655	565	0.6
Thailand	2,822	2,823	2.8	Italy	577	551	0.6
Indonesia	2,703	2,700	2.7	Morocco	552	520	0.5
Denmark	2,331	2,221	2.2	Argentina	493	487	0.5
Philippines	2,010	2,099	2.1	Turkey	676	457	0.5
Norway	1,840	1,900	1.9	Pakistan	445	445	0.4
Korea, North	1,700	1,700	1.7	Netherlands	399	422	0.4
Canada	1,597	1,554	1.6	Tanzania	393	387	0.4
Iceland	1,759	1,505	1.5	Ghana	362	362	0.4
Mexico	1,372	1,417	1.4	Portugal	347	332	0.3
Spain	1,430	1,370	1.4	Venezuela	283	327	0.3
South Africa	1,298	879	0.9	Senegal	259	269	0.3
France	883	876	0.9	Nigeria	261	260	0.3
Vietnam	874	868	0.9	Sweden	251	258	0.3
Brazil	829	850	0.9	Egypt	250	254	0.3
Bangladesh	830	833	0.8	Ireland	256	245	0.2
Great Britain (UK)	937	823	0.8	Hong Kong	238	243	0.2

## Dairy Products

## BUTTER (in metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	7,775,288	7,450,408	100.0	Ireland	148,000	151,000	2.0
<i>ex USSR</i>	1,802,000	1,570,000	21.1	<i>ex Czechoslovakia</i>	157,529	132,799	1.8
India	970,000	1,040,000	14.0	Turkey	113,400	114,200	1.5
Germany	665,200	652,000	8.8	Great Britain (UK)	138,372	114,000	1.5
United States	607,700	634,000	8.5	Australia	105,510	104,000	1.4
France	527,000	500,000	6.7	Canada	104,447	101,193	1.4
Pakistan	280,834	298,134	4.0	Belgium-Luxembourg	87,000	85,000	1.1
New Zealand	258,100	292,000	3.9	Denmark	93,300	82,000	1.1
Poland	315,000	225,000	3.0	Egypt	78,975	79,550	1.1
Netherlands	178,000	165,000	2.2	Italy	79,000	76,000	1.0

## CHEESE (in metric tons)

	1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991		1990 Prod.	1991 Prod.	% 1991
World Total	14,539,259	14,163,370	100.0	Canada	286,228	290,721	2.1
United States	3,127,000	3,090,100	21.8	Denmark	295,000	290,000	2.0
<i>ex USSR</i>	2,064,000	1,845,000	13.0	Argentina	270,000	280,000	2.0
France	1,363,000	1,425,000	10.1	Greece	198,667	207,000	1.5
Germany	1,341,872	1,193,357	8.4	Iran	182,785	183,982	1.3
Italy	699,899	692,486	4.9	Bulgaria	191,800	181,400	1.3
Netherlands	584,275	614,275	4.3	<i>ex Czechoslovakia</i>	204,609	180,564	1.3
Egypt	311,256	318,790	2.3	Australia	175,333	176,260	1.2
Great Britain (UK)	312,000	310,000	2.2	Spain	156,102	155,102	1.1
Poland	332,699	292,780	2.1	China	145,240	142,909	1.0



**Table 8 — Economic production: Minerals and metallurgy**  
**Minerals and fossil fuels**

**ANTHRACITE AND FOSSIL COAL (in thousands of metric tons)**

	1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989		1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989
World Total	3,453,970	3,474,184	100.00	France	12,893	12,296	0.35
China (*)	946,460	1,040,000	29.94	Mexico	10,586	10,575	0.30
United States	784,864	810,034	23.32	Japan	11,223	10,187	0.29
ex USSR	599,000	502,844	14.47	Romania	8,831	8,289	0.24
India	189,021	198,659	5.72	Brazil	7,331	6,536	0.19
Poland	193,015	177,633	5.11	Vietnam	5,500	5,400	0.16
South Africa	178,820	174,711	5.03	Zimbabwe	5,065	5,111	0.15
Australia	134,807	147,778	4.25	Indonesia	2,741	4,553	0.13
Great Britain (UK)	101,791	98,285	2.83	Belgium	3,439	3,632	0.10
Germany (ex GFR)	79,319	77,451	2.23	Turkey	3,256	3,200	0.09
Korea, North	40,000	40,500	1.17	Pakistan	2,750	2,619	0.08
Canada	38,585	38,794	1.12	New Zealand	2,106	2,462	0.07
ex Czechoslovakia	25,478	24,681	0.71	Hungary	2,255	2,127	0.06
Korea, South	24,295	20,785	0.60	Venezuela	1,072	2,098	0.06
Colombia	15,101	18,969	0.55	Philippines	1,336	1,360	0.04
Chile	15,101	18,969	0.55				
Spain	14,205	14,525	0.42				

(\*) Including lignite

**LIGNITE (in thousands of metric tons)**

	1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989		1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989
World Total	1,257,466	1,256,777	100.0	Greece	48,323	51,866	4.1
Germany	418,936	410,934	32.7	Australia	43,398	48,289	3.8
ex USSR	196,100	187,916	15.0	Turkey	35,962	36,000	2.9
ex Czechoslovakia	97,999	92,083	7.3	Bulgaria	33,951	34,105	2.7
United States	77,202	78,625	6.3	Canada	32,058	31,733	2.5
ex Yugoslavia	70,498	74,339	5.9	Spain	17,635	21,926	1.7
Poland	73,489	71,816	5.7	Hungary	18,620	17,903	1.4
Romania	49,280	52,210	4.2	Korea, North	12,500	13,000	1.0

**PETROLEUM (in thousands of metric tons)**

	1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990		1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990
World Total	2,956,964	3,015,699	100.0	Egypt	42,999	43,952	1.5
ex USSR	601,500	565,500	18.8	Algeria	34,064	37,021	1.2
United States	382,637	369,679	12.3	Oman	31,803	34,018	1.1
Saudi Arabia	252,433	320,375	10.6	India	33,685	33,311	1.1
Iran	140,426	157,082	5.2	Brazil	29,845	31,612	1.0
China	137,450	138,100	4.6	Malaysia	28,399	30,028	1.0
Mexico	130,665	133,085	4.4	Australia	22,540	25,502	0.8
Venezuela	100,090	112,009	3.7	Argentina	23,641	24,784	0.8
United Arab Emir.	89,256	101,959	3.4	Angola	22,642	23,553	0.8
Iraq	136,603	100,638	3.3	Syria	18,329	22,941	0.8
Great Britain (UK)	87,404	88,010	2.9	Colombia	20,382	22,155	0.7
Nigeria	85,175	86,538	2.9	Qatar	19,064	19,062	0.6
Norway	72,609	79,648	2.6	Ecuador	14,556	14,936	0.5
Canada	76,539	76,315	2.5	Gabon	10,227	13,493	0.4
Indonesia	69,323	70,388	2.3	Cameroon	8,635	8,480	0.3
Libya	54,320	67,162	2.2	Yemen	8,982	8,468	0.3
Kuwait	74,051	59,550	2.0	Congo	7,962	8,076	0.3

## NATURAL GAS (in millions of cubic feet)

	1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989		1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989
World Total	69,188	71,659	100.0	Romania	1,299	1,161	1.6
ex USSR	27,252	27,181	37.9	Norway	1,094	1,130	1.6
United States	16,662	17,251	24.1	Indonesia	1,193	1,097	1.5
Canada	3,481	3,392	4.7	Venezuela	674	706	1.0
Netherlands	2,316	2,524	3.5	Argentina	702	702	1.0
Great Britain (UK)	1,588	1,723	2.4	Italy	582	593	0.8
Algeria	1,624	1,694	2.4	Australia	537	565	0.8
Mexico	1,571	1,539	2.1	Germany (ex GFR)	526	519	0.7

## URANIUM (in metric tons)

	1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990		1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990
World Total	38,412	31,893	100.0	France	3,241	2,841	8.9
Canada	11,323	8,729	27.4	Niger	2,962	2,831	8.9
Australia	3,655	3,530	11.1	South Africa	2,943	2,487	7.8
United States	5,320	3,420	10.7	Gabon	870	700	2.2
Namibia	3,077	3,200	10.0	Hungary	530	524	1.6
Germany	3,717	2,972	9.3	Spain	227	213	0.7

## Metal Ores

## IRON (in thousands of metric tons)

	1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989		1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989
World Total	565,403	570,190	100.00	Spain	1,925	2,286	0.40
ex USSR	138,217	134,789	23.64	Turkey	2,983	1,947	0.34
Brazil	99,285	104,516	18.33	ex Yugoslavia	1,844	1,683	0.30
China	77,190	81,078	14.22	Algeria	1,559	—	—
Australia	65,080	62,142	10.90	Norway	1,681	1,529	0.27
United States	36,468	37,188	6.52	Egypt	1,054	1,290	0.23
India	32,085	34,140	5.99	Iran	1,036	—	—
Canada	24,302	24,061	4.22	Austria	767	804	0.14
South Africa	15,805	18,754	3.29	Zimbabwe	610	686	0.12
Sweden	12,670	13,455	2.36	Romania	496	514	0.09
Venezuela	12,116	11,770	2.06	Bulgaria	528	483	0.08
Liberia	8,011	—	—	ex Czechoslovakia	474	476	0.08
Mauritania	6,500	—	—	Argentina	379	414	0.07
Chile	4,801	5,313	0.93	Korea, South	372	379	0.07
Korea, North	3,600	—	—	Colombia	283	261	0.05
Mexico	5,564	3,394	0.60	Tunisia	173	146	0.03
Peru	2,839	2,908	0.51	Malaysia	113	108	0.02
France	3,225	2,905	0.51	Thailand	57	103	0.02

## LEAD (in thousands of metric tons)

	1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990		1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990
World Total	3,304.1	3,315.7	100.0	Canada	276.1	232.1	7.0
Australia	495.0	560.5	16.9	Peru	193.1	188.9	5.7
United States	419.5	495.2	14.9	Mexico	180.1	180.0	5.4
ex USSR	500.0	490.0	14.8	Sweden	83.2	84.2	2.5
China	341.4	315.3	9.5				

(continues)

	1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990		1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990
<i>ex Yugoslavia</i>	79.0	83.0	2.5	Greece	24.5	26.2	0.8
South Africa	78.2	70.2	2.1	India	25.0	25.0	0.8
Morocco	64.7	66.9	2.0	Argentina	26.7	23.4	0.7
Spain	62.6	61.5	1.9	Thailand	24.4	22.2	0.7
Korea, North	70.0	60.0	1.8	Namibia	23.9	20.7	0.6
Poland	51.1	45.4	1.4	Bolivia	15.7	19.9	0.6
Bulgaria	49.5	45.2	1.4	Japan	18.6	18.7	0.6
Ireland	32.1	35.3	1.1	Korea, South	16.5	18.7	0.6

## ZINC (in thousands of metric tons)

	1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990		1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990
World Total	7,119.7	7,298.7	100.0	Sweden	168.0	159.9	2.2
Canada	1,216.1	1,175.8	16.1	Poland	170.0	154.8	2.1
Australia	803.0	938.6	12.9	Japan	131.8	127.3	1.7
<i>ex USSR</i>	940.0	870.0	11.9	Brazil	105.8	110.0	1.5
China	620.4	618.9	8.5	Bolivia	74.8	107.9	1.5
Peru	598.1	585.1	8.0	Thailand	86.6	80.8	1.1
United States	288.3	538.2	7.4	<i>ex Yugoslavia</i>	75.0	76.0	1.0
Mexico	314.7	298.9	4.1	South Africa	77.3	74.5	1.0
Spain	265.3	257.5	3.5	India	65.2	70.0	1.0
Korea, North	200.0	195.0	2.7	Zaire	72.8	61.8	0.8
Ireland	168.8	166.5	2.3	Germany ( <i>ex GFR</i> )	63.9	58.1	0.8

## TIN (in metric tons)

	1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990		1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990
World Total	224,000	210,700	100.0	Bolivia	15,800	17,300	8.2
Brazil	50,200	39,100	18.6	Thailand	14,700	14,600	6.9
China	33,000	35,800	17.0	<i>ex USSR</i>	14,000	13,000	6.2
Indonesia	31,600	31,700	15.0	Australia	7,800	7,400	3.5
Malaysia	32,000	28,500	13.5	Peru	5,100	5,100	2.4

## COPPER (in thousands of metric tons)

	1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990		1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990
World Total	9,091.2	9,037.9	100.0	Philippines	193.1	182.3	2.0
Chile	1,609.3	1,588.4	17.6	Papua New Guinea	205.1	170.2	1.9
United States	1,497.8	1,587.2	17.6	Indonesia	148.6	169.5	1.9
<i>ex USSR</i>	950.0	900.0	10.0	Portugal	103.4	157.5	1.7
Canada	723.1	802.0	8.9	Mongolia	135.0	140.0	1.5
Zambia	510.2	496.0	5.5	<i>ex Yugoslavia</i>	119.0	119.0	1.3
China	380.0	360.0	4.0	Sweden	69.8	73.5	0.8
Zaire	454.6	356.2	3.9	Iran	56.2	62.3	0.7
Poland	385.0	329.3	3.6	India	53.3	51.6	0.6
Australia	295.0	327.0	3.6	Turkey	38.1	43.8	0.5
Peru	364.1	317.7	3.5	Brazil	44.4	36.5	0.4
Mexico	262.3	291.3	3.2	Bulgaria	38.8	32.9	0.4
South Africa	196.6	209.9	2.3	Namibia	31.6	32.5	0.4

**BAUXITE (in thousands of metric tons)**

	1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990		1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990
<b>World Total</b>	102,845	109,115	100.0	<i>ex Yugoslavia</i>	3,252	2,953	2.7
<b>Australia</b>	37,355	39,914	36.6	<b>Hungary</b>	2,644	2,559	2.3
<b>Guinea</b>	17,547	17,524	16.1	<b>Greece</b>	2,522	2,455	2.2
<b>Suriname</b>	3,457	13,267	12.2	<b>Sierra Leone</b>	1,562	1,443	1.3
<b>Jamaica</b>	9,487	10,937	10.0	<b>Guyana</b>	1,340	1,424	1.3
<b>Brazil</b>	8,665	9,876	9.1	<b>Indonesia</b>	862	1,164	1.1
<b>India</b>	4,492	4,853	4.4	<b>Turkey</b>	550	784	0.7
<i>ex USSR</i>	4,600	4,200	3.8	<b>United States</b>	670	495	0.5
<b>China</b>	2,055	3,655	3.3	<b>France</b>	550	490	0.4

**MANGANESE (in thousands of metric tons)**

	1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990		1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990
<b>World Total</b>	9,755	8,940	100.00	<b>Ghana</b>	160	98	1.10
<i>ex USSR</i>	2,740	2,561	28.65	<b>Morocco</b>	16	25	0.28
<b>South Africa</b>	2,017	1,836	20.54	<b>Hungary</b>	25	23	0.26
<b>Gabon</b>	1,197	1,200	13.42	<b>Bulgaria</b>	11	13	0.14
<b>Brazil</b>	1,143	-	-	<b>Chile</b>	14	12	0.14
<b>Australia</b>	1,008	915	10.23	<i>ex Yugoslavia</i>	14	-	-
<b>China</b>	640	640	7.16	<b>Thailand</b>	5	8	0.09
<b>India</b>	534	503	5.62	<b>Indonesia</b>	5	5	0.06
<b>Mexico</b>	150	157	1.76	<b>Greece</b>	3	2	0.02

**CHROMIUM (in thousands of metric tons)**

	1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990		1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990
<b>World Total</b>	4,019	3,858	100.0	<b>Finland</b>	146	121	3.1
<b>South Africa</b>	1,558	1,416	36.7	<b>Madagascar</b>	47	35	0.9
<i>ex USSR</i>	1,090	1,090	28.3	<b>Iran</b>	29	28	0.7
<b>India</b>	306	300	7.8	<b>Philippines</b>	27	26	0.7
<b>Zimbabwe</b>	206	270	7.0	<b>Greece</b>	24	25	0.6
<b>Turkey</b>	230	220	5.7	<b>Cuba</b>	12	11	0.3
<b>Albania</b>	175	170	4.4	<b>Pakistan</b>	4	6	0.2
<b>Brazil</b>	129	124	3.2	<b>Sudan</b>	9	5	0.1

**MOLYBDENUM (in metric tons)**

	1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990		1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990
<b>World Total</b>	116,408 *	108,383	100.0	<b>Mexico</b>	4,189	4,000	3.7
<b>United States</b>	63,105	61,611	56.8	<b>Peru</b>	5,000	2,000	1.8
<b>Chile</b>	16,550	13,830	12.8	<b>China</b>	2,000	2,000	1.8
<b>Canada</b>	13,543	13,481	12.4	<b>Bulgaria</b>	190	180	0.2
<i>ex USSR</i>	11,500	11,000	10.1	<b>Korea, South</b>	220	171	0.2

**TUNGSTEN (in metric tons)**

	1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990		1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990
<b>World Total</b>	31,451	31,833	100.0	<b>Peru</b>	1,228	1,372	4.3
<b>China</b>	9,000	11,000	34.6	<b>Korea, South</b>	1,828	1,266	4.0
<i>ex USSR</i>	9,300	8,000	25.1	<b>Austria</b>	1,245	1,250	3.9
<b>Portugal</b>	1,381	1,405	4.4				

(continues)

	1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990		1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990
Bolivia	1,118	1,200	3.8	Japan	296	254	0.8
Korea, North	500	1,000	3.1	Turkey	150	100	0.3
Australia	1,211	691	2.2	Rwanda	105	100	0.3
Brazil	538	422	1.3	Spain	81	80	0.3
Myanmar (Burma)	186	300	0.9	Great Britain (UK)	50	50	0.2
Thailand	560	269	0.8	Argentina	20	30	0.1

## NICKEL (in metric tons)

	1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990		1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990
World Total	869,049	858,468	100.0	Dominican Rep.	31,300	28,700	3.3
<i>ex USSR</i>	210,000	212,000	24.7	Brazil	20,963	23,000	2.7
Canada	195,554	191,145	22.3	Botswana	21,309	19,022	2.2
New Caledonia	80,300	85,100	9.9	Greece	18,900	18,500	2.2
Australia	66,000	69,000	8.0	Philippines	15,376	15,820	1.8
Indonesia	59,600	53,800	6.3	Zimbabwe	11,633	11,442	1.3
Cuba	46,592	38,400	4.5	Finland	9,958	9,986	1.2
South Africa	35,470	36,300	4.2	Albania	8,800	8,500	1.0
China	34,288	33,204	3.9	Norway	1,300	3,100	0.4

## MERCURY (in metric tons)

	1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990		1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990
World Total	5,965	5,983	100.0	United States	414	460	7.7
<i>ex USSR</i>	2,300	2,100	35.1	Mexico	345	345	5.8
Spain	967	1,500	25.1	Turkey	197	130	2.2
China	700	700	11.7	<i>ex Czechoslovakia</i>	131	126	2.1
Algeria	587	637	10.6	<i>ex Yugoslavia</i>	51	70	1.2

## MAGNESITE (in thousands of metric tons)

	1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989		1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989
World Total	14,497	14,403	100.0	<i>ex USSR</i>	1,825	1,825	12.7
<i>ex Czechoslovakia</i>	2,903	2,920	20.3	Austria	1,122	1,205	8.4
China	2,000	2,000	13.9	Turkey	1,126	1,200	8.3
Korea, North	1,900	1,900	13.2	Greece	930	900	6.2

## Prized Metals and Precious Stones

## GOLD (in lb)

	1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989		1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989
World Total	9,910,265	4,221,908	100.0	Papua New Guinea	83,886	60,584	1.4
South Africa	1,359,048	1,323,353	31.3	Colombia	63,844	59,598	1.4
<i>ex USSR</i>	616,000	627,000	14.9	Chile	45,351	49,630	1.2
United States	442,011	584,190	13.8	Zimbabwe	32,503	35,207	0.8
Australia	334,407	447,839	10.6	Korea, South	24,466	31,394	0.7
Canada	287,071	350,887	8.3	Ghana	25,588	29,183	0.7
China	171,600	198,000	4.7	Ecuador	20,871	28,600	0.7
Brazil	124,183	-	-	Peru	20,161	22,781	0.5
Philippines	78,100	77,660	1.8				

(continue)

	1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989		1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989
Mexico	20,016	18,949	0.4	Korea, North	11,000	11,000	0.3
Spain	12,256	18,040	0.4	New Zealand	5,289	10,919	0.3
Indonesia	9,990	13,530	0.3	<i>ex Yugoslavia</i>	10,164	9,568	0.2
Japan	16,078	13,413	0.3	Fiji	9,403	9,286	0.2
Dominican Republic	12,833	11,524	0.3	Venezuela	10,274	8,492	0.2
Sweden	9,240	11,264	0.3	France	5,837	7,267	0.2

## SILVER (in metric tons)

	1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990		1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990
World Total	14,391	14,692	100.0	South Africa	180	161	1.1
Mexico	2,306	2,346	16.0	Japan	156	150	1.0
United States	2,007	2,168	14.8	Papua New Guinea	92	130	0.9
Peru	1,748	1,725	11.7	China	125	125	0.9
<i>ex USSR</i>	1,500	1,400	9.5	<i>ex Yugoslavia</i>	133	105	0.7
Canada	1,312	1,381	9.4	Italy	96	98	0.7
Australia	1,075	1,273	8.7	Namibia	108	90	0.6
Poland	1,003	832	5.7	Zaire	60	84	0.6
Chile	545	655	4.5	Argentina	83	80	0.5
Bolivia	267	280	1.9	Indonesia	74	67	0.5
Spain	251	270	1.8	Greece	61	63	0.4
Korea, South	239	238	1.6	Brazil	60	60	0.4
Sweden	228	220	1.5	Bulgaria	59	54	0.4
Morocco	237	190	1.3	Korea, North	50	50	0.3

## DIAMONDS (in thousands of carats)

	1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989		1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989
World Total	58,031	58,857	100.0	Ghana	660	620	1.1
Zaire	18,727	19,000	32.3	Brazil	533	550	0.9
Botswana	15,229	15,252	25.9	Central Afr. Rep.	343	340	0.6
<i>ex USSR</i>	11,000	11,000	18.7	Venezuela	183	219	0.4
South Africa	8,505	9,116	15.5	Sierra Leone	175	175	0.3
Angola	1,000	1,000	1.7	Liberia	330	168	0.3
Namibia	938	1,000	1.7	Tanzania	150	150	0.3

Table 9 - Economic production: Industry  
Metallurgy Products

## CAST IRON AND FERROALLOYS (in thousands of metric tons)

	1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989		1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989
World Total	534,032	547,297	100.0	Great Britain (UK)	12,943	12,551	2.3
<i>ex USSR</i>	114,558	113,928	20.8	India	11,602	11,930	2.2
Japan	78,398	79,177	14.5	Italy	10,986	11,376	2.1
China	57,040	58,200	10.6	Canada	9,490	10,200	1.9
United States	50,571	50,687	9.3	<i>ex Czechoslovakia</i>	9,338	9,539	1.7
Germany ( <i>ex GFR</i> )	31,114	31,327	5.7	Belgium	9,147	8,863	1.6
Brazil	23,454	24,363	4.5	Romania	8,210	8,439	1.5
Turkey	12,541	18,587	3.4	Poland	9,032	8,319	1.5
Korea, South	12,432	14,813	2.7	South Africa	6,250	6,000	1.1
France	13,704	13,872	2.5				

(continued)



	1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989		1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989
Australia	5,455	5,875	1.1	Austria	3,665	3,823	0.7
Spain	4,617	5,464	1.0	<i>ex Yugoslavia</i>	2,787	2,761	0.5
Netherlands	4,994	5,163	0.9	Luxembourg	2,520	2,684	0.5
Mexico	5,050	5,050	0.9	Sweden	2,492	2,586	0.5

## STEEL (in thousands of metric tons)

	1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990		1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 19
World Total	783,300	766,800	100.0	Spain	12,765	12,974	1.7
<i>ex USSR</i>	160,096	154,000	20.1	Canada	15,332	12,184	1.6
Japan	107,908	110,339	14.4	Belgium	10,954	11,414	1.5
United States	88,432	89,726	11.7	Romania	14,415	9,761	1.3
China	61,320	66,450	8.7	Turkey	7,902	9,443	1.2
Germany	48,902	43,621	5.7	South Africa	9,436	8,743	1.1
Italy	25,213	25,513	3.3	Mexico	7,851	8,662	1.1
Korea, South	21,873	23,586	3.1	Korea, North	9,630	8,000	1.0
Brazil	25,055	20,572	2.7	Australia	6,865	6,651	0.9
France	19,335	19,016	2.5	Netherlands	5,681	5,412	0.7
Great Britain (UK)	18,740	17,610	2.3	Sweden	4,692	4,455	0.6
<i>ex Czechoslovakia</i>	15,465	14,877	1.9	Austria	4,718	4,291	0.6
India	12,540	14,747	1.9	Argentina	3,909	3,610	0.5
Poland	15,094	13,633	1.8	<i>ex Yugoslavia</i>	4,448	3,608	0.5

## COPPER FOUNDRY PRODUCTS (in thousands of metric tons)

	1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990		1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 19
World Total	8,859	8,631	100.0	Australia	203	192	2.2
Chile	1,267	1,329	15.4	Korea, South	160	186	2.2
United States	1,120	1,159	13.4	Germany ( <i>ex GFR</i> )	177	184	2.1
<i>ex USSR</i>	1,075	990	11.5	South Africa	185	176	2.0
Japan	882	893	10.3	Mexico	174	174	2.0
Canada	462	481	5.6	Philippines	156	154	1.8
Zambia	485	461	5.3	Brazil	153	148	1.7
China	430	425	4.9	Spain	120	120	1.4
Poland	381	342	4.0	<i>ex Yugoslavia</i>	102	106	1.2
Zaire	425	338	3.9	Sweden	70	84	1.0
Peru	309	261	3.0	Iran	61	55	0.6

## ZINC FOUNDRY PRODUCTS (in thousands of metric tons)

	1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990		1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990
World Total	7,254	7,097	100.0	Korea, South	240	248	3.5
<i>ex USSR</i>	1,020	920	13.0	Italy	246	248	3.5
Japan	665	688	9.7	Korea, North	259	239	3.4
Canada	670	592	8.3	Netherlands	203	208	2.9
China	451	526	7.4	Mexico	195	199	2.8
United States	358	366	5.2	Finland	169	175	2.5
Germany ( <i>ex GFR</i> )	354	338	4.8	Brazil	162	154	2.2
Australia	294	301	4.2	Poland	164	132	1.9
Belgium	287	290	4.1	Norway	121	123	1.8
France	266	264	3.7	Peru	138	118	1.7
Spain	246	253	3.6	<i>ex Yugoslavia</i>	119	114	1.6

**TIN FOUNDRY PRODUCTS (in metric tons)**

	1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990		1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990
<b>World Total</b>	230,000	225,600	100.0	<i>ex USSR</i>	15,000	14,000	6.2
<b>Malaysia</b>	51,900	49,000	21.7	<b>Bolivia</b>	9,700	13,400	5.9
<b>Brazil</b>	44,200	35,100	15.6	<b>Great Britain (UK) (*)</b>	10,800	12,000	5.3
<b>Indonesia</b>	30,200	30,400	13.5	<b>Netherlands (*)</b>	4,700	6,300	2.8
<b>China</b>	28,300	28,000	12.4	<b>Mexico</b>	4,400	5,000	2.2
<b>Thailand</b>	14,600	15,500	6.9				

(\*) Including secondary tin smelting

**LEAD FOUNDRY PRODUCTS (in thousands of metric tons)**

	1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990		1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990
<b>World Total</b>	3,241	3,043	100.0	<b>Canada</b>	157	100	3.3
<i>ex USSR</i>	520	500	16.4	<b>Korea, North</b>	90	80	2.6
<b>United States</b>	397	404	13.3	<b>Belgium-Luxembourg</b>	70	70	2.3
<b>China</b>	269	266	8.7	<b>Peru</b>	74	69	2.3
<b>Australia</b>	189	207	6.8	<b>Italy</b>	77	69	2.3
<b>Japan</b>	208	205	6.7	<b>Morocco</b>	64	65	2.1
<b>Germany (ex GFR)</b>	170	162	5.3	<i>ex Yugoslavia</i>	71	58	1.9
<b>Great Britain (UK)</b>	157	156	5.1	<b>Spain</b>	61	57	1.9
<b>France</b>	149	137	4.5	<b>Bulgaria</b>	70	48	1.6
<b>Mexico</b>	174	100	3.3	<b>Sweden</b>	35	35	1.2

**ALUMINUM (in thousands of metric tons)**

	1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990		1989 Prod.	1990 Prod.	% 1990
<b>World Total</b>	18,215	18,024	100.0	<b>Spain</b>	326	355	2.0
<b>United States</b>	4,030	4,048	22.5	<i>ex Yugoslavia</i>	342	351	1.9
<i>ex USSR</i>	2,500	2,200	12.2	<b>France</b>	335	326	1.8
<b>Canada</b>	1,555	1,567	8.7	<b>Great Britain (UK)</b>	297	290	1.6
<b>Australia</b>	1,242	1,233	6.8	<b>Netherlands</b>	277	272	1.5
<b>Brazil</b>	888	931	5.2	<b>New Zealand</b>	259	260	1.4
<b>Norway</b>	859	871	4.8	<b>Italy</b>	220	232	1.3
<b>China</b>	750	850	4.7	<b>Bahrain</b>	187	213	1.2
<b>Germany (ex GFR)</b>	742	720	4.0	<b>Indonesia</b>	197	192	1.1
<b>Venezuela</b>	546	594	3.3	<b>Egypt</b>	180	180	1.0
<b>India</b>	423	433	2.4	<b>Ghana</b>	169	174	1.0

**Fertilizers and Chemicals****NATURAL PHOSPHATES (in thousands of metric tons)**

	1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989		1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989
<b>World Total</b>	161,479	158,986	100.0	<b>Senegal</b>	2,322	2,270	1.4
<b>United States</b>	45,389	43,866	27.6	<b>Syria</b>	2,186	2,250	1.4
<i>ex USSR</i>	38,820	-	-	<b>Nauru</b>	1,540	-	-
<b>China</b>	18,237	19,827	12.5	<b>Egypt</b>	1,330	1,347	0.8
<b>Morocco</b>	20,078	18,687	11.8	<b>Algeria</b>	1,332	1,320	0.8
<b>Jordan</b>	5,628	6,642	4.2	<b>India</b>	725	708	0.4
<b>Tunisia</b>	6,027	6,610	4.2	<b>Mexico</b>	667	650	0.4
<b>Brazil</b>	4,672	3,655	2.3	<b>Turkey</b>	616	-	-
<b>Togo</b>	3,484	3,350	2.1	<b>Finland</b>	583	564	0.4
<b>South Africa</b>	2,850	2,963	1.9	<b>Vietnam</b>	600	500	0.3
<b>Israel</b>	2,648	2,762	1.7	<b>Korea, North</b>	500	500	0.3

## NITROGEN FERTILIZERS (in thousands of metric tons)

	1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989		1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989
World Total	90,437	92,262	100.0	Indonesia	1,979	2,033	2.2
<i>ex USSR</i>	15,815	15,604	16.9	France	2,029	1,929	2.1
China	13,656	14,241	15.4	Netherlands	1,757	1,800	2.0
United States	12,162	12,691	13.8	Poland	1,622	1,643	1.8
India	6,480	6,725	7.3	Mexico	1,346	1,360	1.5
Egypt	4,387	4,539	4.9	Japan	1,395	1,338	1.5
Canada	2,762	3,000	3.3	Italy	1,279	1,297	1.4
Germany	2,335	2,224	2.4	Pakistan	1,097	1,112	1.2
Romania	2,130	2,035	2.2	Great Britain (UK)	1,105	1,100	1.2

## POTASSIUM SALTS (in thousands of metric tons)

	1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989		1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989
World Total	29,600	27,254	100.0	United States	1,521	1,595	5.9
<i>ex USSR</i>	11,301	10,500	38.5	Jordan	1,310	1,315	4.8
Canada	8,190	7,014	25.7	France	1,612	1,291	4.7
Germany ( <i>ex GFR</i> )	2,869	2,752	10.1	Israel	1,244	1,271	4.7

## SULFURIC ACID (in thousands of metric tons)

	1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989		1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989
World Total	142,756	142,280	100.0	Spain	3,440	3,312	2.3
United States	38,229	39,282	27.6	India	3,416	3,293	2.3
<i>ex USSR</i>	29,372	28,276	19.9	Poland	3,154	3,115	2.2
China	11,113	11,533	8.1	Italy	2,499	2,053	1.4
Japan	6,767	6,885	4.8	Great Britain (UK)	2,257	1,977	1.4
Germany ( <i>ex GFR</i> )	4,053	4,863	3.4	Australia	1,818	1,904	1.3
France	4,081	4,187	2.9	Belgium	2,136	1,898	1.3
Brazil	4,049	3,809	2.7	Romania	1,825	1,687	1.2
Canada	3,805	3,560	2.5	<i>ex Yugoslavia</i>	1,713	1,617	1.1

## HYDROCHLORIC ACID (in thousands of metric tons)

	1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989		1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989
World Total	10,902	11,019	100.0	South Africa	138	190	1.7
United States	2,928	2,882	26.2	Spain	174	180	1.6
China	2,462	2,579	23.4	Canada	180	180	1.6
Germany	1,114	1,100	10.0	Great Britain (UK)	176	167	1.5
Japan	735	762	6.9	<i>ex Yugoslavia</i>	134	149	1.3
France	702	694	6.3	Thailand	119	113	1.0
Romania	473	453	4.1	Netherlands	82	80	0.7
Belgium	411	360	3.3	<i>ex Czechoslovakia</i>	79	76	0.7

## NITRIC ACID (in thousands of metric tons)

	1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989		1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989
World Total	28,133	28,350	100.0	Belgium	1,345	1,329	4.7
United States	7,249	7,574	26.7	Spain	1,229	1,249	4.4
Germany	3,838	3,688	12.9	Italy	1,193	1,198	3.9
Poland	2,187	2,175	7.7				

(continued)

	1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989		1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989
Canada	919	1,027	3.6	Japan	618	658	2.3
Hungary	970	884	3.1	Finland	544	518	1.8
ex Yugoslavia	858	730	2.6	Brazil	387	430	1.5

## CAUSTIC SODA (in thousands of metric tons)

	1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989		1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989
World Total	35,456	35,346	100.0	Canada	1,720	1,679	4.8
United States	9,556	9,518	26.9	France	1,494	1,531	4.3
Japan	3,403	3,564	10.1	Italy	1,190	1,178	3.3
Germany (ex GFR)	3,664	3,541	10.0	Brazil	1,007	991	2.8
China	3,005	3,211	9.1	India	907	910	2.6
ex USSR	3,323	3,185	9.0	Romania	821	763	2.2

## ARTIFICIAL CELLULOSE FIBERS (in millions of square feet)

	1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989		1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 19
World Total	87,113	86,962	100.0	Poland	753	635	0.7
France	17,657	18,561	21.3	ex Czechoslovakia	635	613	0.7
Japan	7,188	7,478	8.6	Great Britain (UK)	495	-	-
Germany (ex GFR)	5,369	5,735	6.6	ex Yugoslavia	323	409	0.8
Belgium	2,884	-	-	Hungary	377	323	0.4

Table 10 — Economic production: Energy resources and transportation  
Energy

ELECTRICITY									
	Installed capacity ('000 kW, 1989)	Energy produced in 1989 (mill. kWh)	Energy produced in 1990 (mill. kWh)	1990		Installed capacity ('000 kW, 1989)	Energy produced in 1989 (mill. kWh)	Energy produced in 1990 (mill. kWh)	% 1990
World Total		11,444,552	11,720,904	100.0	Norway	26,715	118,775	121,601	1.0
United States	757,593	2,982,478	3,028,055	25.8	Korea, South	23,522	102,906	118,738	1.0
ex USSR	333,100	1,722,000	1,726,000	14.7	ex Czechoslovakia	17,392	87,534	89,345	0.8
Japan	185,133	798,756	857,273	7.3	ex Yugoslavia	16,470	86,309	85,905	0.7
China	98,000	582,000	618,000	5.3	Taiwan	16,969	76,912	-	-
Germany	121,868	555,977	572,002	4.9	Netherlands	17,291	73,027	71,816	0.6
Canada	98,890	499,510	481,765	4.1	Belgium	14,072	66,862	70,207	0.6
France	100,140	406,333	419,584	3.6	Romania	22,904	75,850	64,306	0.5
Great Britain (UK)	69,879	313,863	318,977	2.7	Turkey	15,806	52,043	57,544	0.5
India	69,873	266,196	286,029	2.4	Iran	15,504	42,310	56,000	0.5
Brazil	52,071	221,738	222,195	1.9	Switzerland	15,320	53,766	55,846	0.5
Italy	62,063	207,450	216,891	1.9	Venezuela	17,733	59,328	55,750	0.5
South Africa	25,870	162,320	162,340	1.4	Finland	12,706	53,881	54,508	0.5
Australia	36,782	147,788	154,571	1.3	Korea, North	9,500	53,500	53,300	0.5
Spain	43,791	146,590	150,622	1.3	Argentina	16,600	50,832	50,907	0.4
Sweden	32,783	143,902	146,530	1.3	Austria	16,807	50,167	50,414	0.4
Poland	30,750	145,467	136,337	1.2	Saudi Arabia	17,150	46,300	47,400	0.4
Mexico	27,338	118,083	122,449	1.0	Thailand	7,872	39,106	46,175	0.4

(continued)

	Installed capacity ( <sup>000</sup> kW, 1989)	Energy produced in 1989 (mill. kWh)	Energy produced in 1990 (mill. kWh)	% 1990		Installed capacity ( <sup>000</sup> kW, 1989)	Energy produced in 1989 (mill. kWh)	Energy produced in 1990 (mill. kWh)	% 1990
Indonesia	11,030	41,810	44,260	0.4	Egypt	11,845	39,300	39,550	0.3
Pakistan	8,467	40,284	43,899	0.4	Greece	8,346	34,456	35,002	0.3
Bulgaria	11,103	44,330	41,300	0.4	New Zealand	6,964	29,471	30,158	0.3

## NUCLEAR POWER

	Installed power ( <sup>000</sup> kW, 1989)	Energy produced (mill. kWh, 1989)		Installed power ( <sup>000</sup> kW, 1989)	Energy produced (mill. kWh, 1989)
United States	103,397	529,355	Spain	7,469	56,124
France	52,530	303,931	Korea, South	7,616	47,365
<i>ex USSR</i>	37,400	213,000	Belgium	5,500	41,217
Japan	29,445	182,869	<i>ex Czechoslovakia</i>	3,226	24,575
Germany	24,628	161,287	Switzerland	2,950	22,836
Canada	11,890	79,871	Finland	2,350	19,091
Sweden	9,850	65,885	India	1,565	7,349
Great Britain (UK)	7,665	64,600	Argentina	1,018	5,550

## Transportation

## SHIPYARDS - SHIPS LAUNCHED (in thousands of gross register tons)

	1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	% 1989		1988 Prod.	1989 Prod.	1989
World Total	11,997	13,041	100.00	China	287	225	1.73
Japan	4,546	6,023	46.19	Italy	334	212	1.63
Korea, South	3,406	2,679	20.54	Finland	274	208	1.59
Germany	809	765	5.87	Poland	179	122	0.94
Taiwan	484	580	4.45	Netherlands	68	108	0.83
<i>ex Yugoslavia</i>	330	479	3.67	Great Britain (UK)	91	100	0.77
Denmark	315	314	2.41	France	100	77	0.59
Spain	141	276	2.12	Belgium	28	45	0.35
Brazil	269	260	1.99	Norway	32	31	0.24

## MERCHANT MARINE (motor vessels over 100 gross register tons, in thousands of gross register tons, 1990)

	No. of ships	Gross tonnage	% GT		No. of ships	Gross tonnage	% GT
World Total	78,336	423,627	100.0	Great Britain (UK)	1,998	6,716	1.6
Liberia	1,688	54,700	12.9	Hong Kong	375	6,565	1.5
Panama	4,748	39,298	9.3	India	855	6,476	1.5
Japan	10,000	27,078	6.4	Brazil	691	6,016	1.4
<i>ex USSR</i>	7,383	26,737	6.3	Taiwan	660	5,766	1.4
Norway	2,557	23,423	5.5	Denmark	1,260	5,188	1.2
United States	6,348	21,328	5.0	Iran	393	4,738	1.1
Greece	1,814	20,522	4.8	Malta	524	4,519	1.0
Cyprus	1,270	18,336	4.3	Germany ( <i>ex GFR</i> )	1,179	4,301	1.0
China	1,948	13,899	3.3	Bermuda	105	4,258	1.0
Bahamas	807	13,626	3.2	Romania	483	4,005	0.9
Philippines	1,420	8,515	2.0	France	900	3,832	0.9
Singapore	774	7,928	1.9	<i>ex Yugoslavia</i>	501	3,816	0.9
Korea, South	2,110	7,783	1.8	Spain	2,336	3,807	0.9
Italy	1,616	7,399	1.7				(continued)

	No. of ships	Gross tonnage	% GT		No. of ships	Gross tonnage	% GT
Netherlands	1,227	3,785	0.9	Poland	698	3,369	0.8
Turkey	869	3,719	0.9	Sweden	679	2,775	0.7

MOTOR VEHICLE PRODUCTION (1990 - ANFIA<sup>1</sup>)

	Cars	Industrial Vehicles	Total	%		Cars	Industrial Vehicles	Total	%
World Total	35,877,578	11,923,259	47,800,837	100.0	ex USSR	1,125,000	760,800	1,885,800	3.9
Japan	9,947,972	3,538,824	13,486,796	28.2	Great Britain (UK)	1,295,611	270,133	1,565,744	3.3
United States	6,077,885	3,702,762	9,780,647	20.5	Korea, South	986,751	334,879	1,321,630	2.8
Germany (ex GFR)	4,813,194	350,248	5,163,442	10.8	Brazil	663,097	251,587	914,684	1.9
France	3,294,815	474,178	3,768,993	7.9	Mexico	598,093	222,465	820,558	1.7
Italy	1,874,672	246,178	2,120,850	4.4	Sweden	322,241	74,415	396,656	0.8
Spain	1,679,301	374,049	2,053,350	4.3	Australia	360,912	23,179	384,091	0.8
Canada	1,076,119	850,304	1,926,423	4.0					

MOTOR VEHICLES IN CIRCULATION (1989 fleet - ANFIA<sup>1</sup>)

	Thousands	Persons per vehicle		Thousands	Persons per vehicle
World Total	561,490	9.0	Saudi Arabia (*)	2,855	5.6
United States	188,669	1.3	Argentina (*)	5,680	5.6
Canada (*)	15,400	1.7	Poland	5,914	6.3
Australia	9,489	1.7	Bulgaria (*)	1,284	7.0
New Zealand (*)	1,865	1.8	ex Yugoslavia (*)	3,395	7.0
Germany (ex GFR)	32,348	1.9	Venezuela (*)	2,174	8.9
France	27,758	2.0	South Africa (*)	4,241	9.1
Italy	28,729	2.0	Taiwan (*)	2,103	9.6
Japan	62,093	2.0	Malaysia (*)	1,523	11.0
Switzerland	3,178	2.1	Mexico (*)	7,795	11.1
Norway	1,930	2.2	Brazil	12,923	11.4
Sweden	3,886	2.2	ex USSR (*)	22,075	13.1
Great Britain (UK)	25,574	2.2	Korea, South	2,660	15.9
Finland	2,034	2.4	Algeria (*)	1,205	20.7
Austria	3,199	2.4	Thailand (*)	2,239	24.8
Belgium	4,119	2.4	Colombia (*)	1,262	25.3
Netherlands	5,928	2.5	Iran (*)	2,108	25.6
Denmark	1,902	2.7	Turkey (*)	1,954	28.3
Spain	13,737	2.9	Morocco (*)	792	32.3
Germany (ex GDR)	4,369	3.8	Nigeria (*)	1,379	83.6
ex Czechoslovakia (*)	3,461	4.5	Indonesia (*)	2,099	89.4
Hungary	2,078	5.1	China (*)	4,325	257.2
Portugal	1,908	5.1	India (*)	3,109	268.1
Libya (*)	770	5.3			

<sup>1</sup> Italian National Association of Automobile Industries

(\*) = 1988

## MAJOR INTERNATIONAL PORTS (in thousands of metric tons of cargo)

	Cargo loaded	Cargo unloaded	Total	Year
Rotterdam (Netherlands)	66,415	225,456	291,871	1989
New Orleans (United States)	-	-	175,501	1990
Singapore (Singapore)	75,931	97,367	173,298	1989
Kobe (Japan)	79,854	86,880	166,734	1988
Chiba (Japan)	42,896	121,286	164,182	1989
New York (United States)	-	-	155,062	1990
Shanghai (China)	33,186	79,719	112,905	1988



	Cargo loaded	Cargo unloaded	Total	Year
Nagoya (Japan)	41,572	68,025	109,597	1987
Antwerp (Belgium)	38,474	56,926	95,400	1989
Marseille (France)	17,746	75,673	93,419	1989
Kawasaki (Japan)	30,961	60,643	91,604	1979
Vitoria (Brazil)	77,027	11,406	88,433	1989
Osaka (Japan)	31,732	54,411	86,143	1985
Hong Kong (Hong Kong)	30,126	55,269	85,395	1989
Kaohsiung (Taiwan)	14,270	63,877	78,147	1989
Philadelphia (United States)	5,524	66,233	71,757	1989
Corpus Christi (United States)	30,414	38,963	69,377	1989
Yokohama (Japan)	26,447	37,902	64,349	1989
Vancouver (Canada)	57,674	6,351	64,025	1989
Houston (United States)	22,782	39,843	62,625	1989
Los Angeles (United States)	19,641	42,852	62,493	1989
Tokyo (Japan)	17,667	44,208	61,875	1979
Hamburg (Germany)	20,952	36,630	57,582	1989
Richard's Bay (South Africa)	54,088	1,491	55,579	1989
London (Great Britain)	12,051	41,983	54,034	1989
Tampa (United States)	24,803	28,409	53,212	1989
Le Havre (France)	12,084	40,155	52,239	1989
Genoa (Italy)	4,215	38,322	42,537	1988
Teeside-Hartlepool (Great Britain)	23,249	16,043	39,292	1989
Dunkirk (France)	10,568	28,573	39,141	1989
Grimsby (Great Britain)	11,126	25,705	36,831	1989
Warri (Nigeria)	1,071	35,118	36,189	1989
Sydney (Australia)	14,683	21,390	36,073	1986
Newcastle (Australia)	29,800	5,500	35,300	1989
Milford Haven (Great Britain)	13,578	19,558	33,136	1989
Bremen (Germany)	12,683	19,774	32,457	1989
as-Sidrah (Libya)	31,730	0	31,730	1979
Baltimore (United States)	14,182	16,801	30,983	1989
Augusta (Italy)	13,448	17,147	30,595	1988
Manila (Philippines)	10,088	20,320	30,408	1989
Taranto (Italy)	7,995	21,725	29,720	1988
Santos (Brazil)	19,123	10,480	29,603	1989
Amsterdam (Netherlands)	8,802	19,906	28,708	1989
Bombay (India)	14,605	13,146	27,751	1989
Bilboa (Spain)	8,328	18,638	26,966	1989
Durban (South Africa)	16,366	8,850	25,216	1989
Venice (Italy)	3,865	21,024	24,889	1988
Göteborg (Sweden)	11,021	13,274	24,295	1989
Pointe-Noire (Congo)	21,722	1,580	23,302	1989
Trieste (Italy)	3,239	20,052	23,291	1988
Ghent (Belgium)	5,443	17,604	23,047	1989
Arzew (Algeria)	22,467	441	22,908	1982
Porto Foxi (Italy)	9,635	12,292	21,927	1988
Alexandria (Egypt)	-	-	21,400	1987
Rouen (France)	12,543	8,387	20,930	1989
Rostock (Germany)	7,940	12,835	20,775	1989
Montreal (Canada)	6,683	13,740	20,423	1989
Sines (Portugal)	8,169	11,755	19,924	1989
Szczecin (Poland)	-	-	19,348	1989
Danzig (Poland)	-	-	18,859	1989
Barcelona (Spain)	6,248	11,896	18,144	1989
Casablanca (Morocco)	9,046	5,962	15,008	1989
Salonica (Greece)	5,288	9,268	14,556	1989
Lisbon (Portugal)	2,193	11,855	14,048	1989

# LEXICON

**ALLOCHTHONOUS** – Relating to a physical or anthropic element that originated in a system different from the space or social context in which it lives.

**ALLUVIAL DEPOSITS** – Loose materials (gravel, sand, silt) deposited by a river or stream when it overflows as a result of excessive and prolonged precipitation.

**AQUIFER** – Accumulation of subsurface water trapped in porous rocky strata (gravel, sand, sandstone, etc.); the water table can lie unconfined when its upper surface is open to the atmosphere (groundwater aquifer), be compressed between two impervious rocky layers (confined aquifer) or more or less completely occupy underground cavities within limestone (karst aquifer).

**ARCHIPELAGO** – Group of islands emerging to the surface from a submarine ridge or shelf and characterized by very close proximity.

**AUTOCHTHONOUS** – Relating to physical or anthropic elements that originated in the same space or social context in which they are present.

**BALANCE OF PAYMENTS** – National accounting records reflecting the difference between a nation's total payments and receipts, including the value of all goods and services.

**BALANCE OF TRADE** – The difference in value between a nation's exports and imports of goods, services, and capital over a specified period; it is said to be favorable or unfavorable as exports exceed or are less than imports.

**BASEMENT** – A complex, usually of igneous and metamorphic rocks, that is overlain unconformably by sedimentary strata; also, a crustal layer beneath a sedimentary one and above the Mohorovičić discontinuity.

**BOREAL** – Relating to locations and situations in the Northern Hemisphere between the equator and the North Pole.

**BOREAL FOREST** – See taiga.

**CAATINGA** – Tropical plant formation similar to savanna found in northeastern Brazil, with undergrowth thickets of shrubs, grass, and tree species such as mimosa and cactus.

**CALDERA** – Large bowl-shaped volcanic depression resulting from the collapse or subsidence of the center of a volcanic cone.

**CALORIE** – Quantity of heat required at a pressure of 1 atmosphere to raise the temperature of 1 gram of water 1 degree centigrade; also called a gram calorie or small calorie. A food calorie, or large calorie, is actually a kilocalorie, equivalent to 1000 normal calories.

**CANYON** – Deep river valley with almost vertical or precipitous cliffs.

**CAPE** – Extension of land jutting out into the sea; a headland or promontory.

**CASCADE** – A small waterfall or series of falls descending over rocks.

**CATARACT** – A waterfall of considerable volume with the vertical fall concentrated in one sheer drop.

**CATCHMENT AREA** – See hydrographic basin.

**CENSUS** – Periodic statistical enumeration, usually carried out every ten years, of an area's population and its dynamic and structural characteristics; censuses are also undertaken to assess economic data.

**CHERNOZEM** – Dark-colored zonal soil (literally, "black earth" in Russia) that develops in a temperate steppe environment and is very rich in humus, making it especially suitable for the cultivation of grains.

**CHLOROFLUOROCARBONS (CFCs)** – Gases used as refrigerants, propellants, or solvents held responsible for depletion of the atmosphere's ozone layer, which shields living organisms from harmful ultraviolet radiation.

**CHOTT** – Shallow lake basin or marsh frequently found in arid or subdesert areas of northern Africa; intense evaporation causes its level to vary considerably, promoting the formation of saline deposits; very similar to sebkha (*q.v.*).

**CLIMATIC REGIMEN** – Behavior of the climatic elements (temperature, precipitation, wind, etc.) in the course of the year which determine a type of climate (e.g., monsoon, Mediterranean, etc.).

**COLONY** – Territory which is administered by a foreign country that has free access to its resources and whose population is deprived of the right to self-government.

**CONTIGUOUS ZONE** – A geographically limited ocean zone 12 nautical miles wide, adjacent to the territorial waters of a coastal state and subject to its customs, fiscal, sanitary, and other jurisdiction.

**CONTINENTAL SHELF** – Margin (in some cases quite wide) around a continental landmass that has submerged from the sea or ocean, gently sloping from the shoreline to the continental slope and extending to some depth but rarely beyond 100 fathoms [200 m]. In international law, the continental shelf lies within the sovereignty of the coastal nation to which it is contiguous and which has the right to exploit its resources (see Exclusive Economic Zone).

**CONTINENTAL SLOPE** – Seaward border of the submerged continental shelf (*q.v.*) consisting of a steep incline which drops down to the level of the ocean floor.

**CONURBATION** – Merger in a single urban agglomeration of several inhabited centers as a result of their gradual expansion.

**CORAL REEF** – Formation of coral colonies in tropical seas off the coast that have emerged directly from the submarine shelf or from submerged reliefs; often separated from the shore by a lagoon (*q.v.*).

**CORDILLERA** – Group of mountain ranges forming a mountain system of great linear extent and often consisting of a number of more or less parallel chains, primarily used in North and South American toponomy.

**CRATER** – In geology, a bowl-shaped cavity located at the summit of a volcano, generally in direct communication with a volcanic vent or channel through which magmatic materials (lava, gas) emerge.

**CREOLE** – A native of the West Indies or Latin America of European (usually Spanish or French) ancestry; also, a pidgin language derived from English, Spanish, or Portuguese enriched by elements from Africa and Latin America.

**DELTA** – Low-lying alluvial sediments at the mouth of a river, consisting of sand, clay, and mud banks separated by a network of natural channels.

**DEPRESSION** – Relatively hollow or sunken land area surrounded by higher elevations.

**DUNE** – Accumulation of sand built up by the wind, commonly found along shores, near lakes, or in desert regions.

**ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION** – Those inhabitants of a given political and administrative unit which officially constitute its labor force, subdivided in turn into the three principal economic sectors: primary (agriculture, forestry, mining, etc.), secondary (manufacturing, construction, etc.), and tertiary (commerce, services, etc.).

**ECOSYSTEM** – Ecological community in which living organisms coexist and interact with the physical environmental factors in a given area.

**ECUMENE** – Permanently inhabited portion of the Earth as distinguished from the uninhabited or temporarily inhabited areas.

**ENCLAVE** – A country, or especially an outlying portion of a country, entirely or mostly surrounded by the territory of another country, or a cultural or linguistic minority group surrounded by a dominant majority group. See exclave.

**ENDOGENOUS** – Relating to situations and phenomena occurring or originating inside the Earth's crust or within a biological system.

**ENDORHEIC** – Flowing to the inside, applied particularly to inland drainage basins whose water does not reach the sea.

**ENVIRONMENT** – Complex of physical, chemical, and biological factors affecting various areas of the Earth's surface, characterized by the interdependence of coexisting phenomena and organisms.

**EPIPHYTE** – A plant which grows nonparasitically on another plant or on some nonliving structure, such as a building or telephone pole, deriving moisture and nutrients from the air. Also known as aerophyte or air plant.

**EQUATOR** – Imaginary circle around the Earth whose plane (equatorial plane) is perpendicular to the Earth's axis of rotation and equidistant from its poles, dividing the Earth's surface into the Northern and Southern Hemispheres.

**EROSION** – The wearing away of the land, chiefly by rain and running water; also, the loosening and transportation of rock debris at the earth's surface.

**ESTUARY** – Broad and deep tidal mouth of a river where the river's current meets the tide of the sea.

**EXCHANGE** – Organized market where movable assets, such as securities, obligations, currency, and money are bought and sold (stock exchange) or commodities, raw materials, air or maritime charters, etc., are traded (commodity exchange). See market.

**EXCLAVE** – A portion of a country which is separated from the main part and surrounded by alien territory; considered within the latter as an enclave (*q.v.*).

**EXCLUSIVE ECONOMIC ZONE** – Expanse of ocean extending for 200 nautical miles beyond the limits of a coastal country's territorial waters (*q.v.*) over which it has exploitation rights to all natural resources, including those relating to the continental shelf (*q.v.*) lying underneath.

**EXOGENOUS** – Relating to situations and phenomena occurring or originating on the Earth's surface or outside a given biological system.

**EXORHEIC** – Flowing to the outside, applied particularly to normal drainage basins whose water flows to the sea.

**FAULT** – Fracture of stratified rocky structures of the Earth's crust due to dynamic stress.

**FJORD** – Narrow, deep glacial inlet formed by entrance of the sea into a deeply excavated glacial trough after the melting of a glacier.

**FLOODPLAIN** – The relatively smooth valley floors adjacent to and formed by alluviating rivers which are subject to overflow.

**FLOW RATE** – Time required for a given quantity of fluid to travel a measured distance, as through a cross section of a river or stream; usually measured in cubic feet (or meters) per second.

**FOLD** – A bend in rock strata or other planar structure, usually produced by deformation; folds are recognized where layered rocks have been distorted into wavelike form.

**FOREST (WOODLAND)** – Complex ecological system of vegetation comprising predominantly tall trees and often still in its natural state and therefore unmodified by human intervention, which may consist of one or more species (as in the case of temperate or monsoon forests) or of many mixed species

(equatorial forest).

**FUMAROLE** – Vent in a volcanic structure from which gases and vapors issue at high temperature during its dormant phase.

**GEOSYNCLINE** – Large, generally linear trough of accumulated sediment in a depression between two landmasses; the rising of a geosyncline and its successive compression as a result of tectonic thrust due to the movement of contiguous crustal plates leads to the folding of the sedimentary deposits and the formation of mountain systems (see orogeny).

**GEYSER** – Intermittent eruption of underground hot water and steam from an active volcanic area.

**GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT (GDP)** – Total market value of goods and services produced in a country in a specified period of time, usually a year.

**GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT (GNP)** – Total market value of goods and services of a nation's economy produced during a specified period of time (but excluding goods or services used in the process of production of further goods and services), i.e., the gross domestic product (*q.v.*) combined with income (*q.v.*) accruing to a nation's residents from investments abroad minus the income earned in the domestic economy accruing to foreign nationals.

**GULLY** – A narrow valley or ravine originally formed by running water and through which water usually flows only after a period of rain.

**HEATH (MOORLAND)** – Temperate-climate open and uncultivated land with poor soil, that often has developed as a result of deforestation or inferior drainage, where heather, erica, fescue grass, and other shrubby, acid-tolerant plants predominate.

**HINTERLAND** – Tributary inland region, either rural or urban, that is closely linked physically, economically, and politically to a nearby port or coastal area.

**HYDROGRAPHIC BASIN** – Area in which surface runoff collects to feed either a single watercourse which drains directly or indirectly into the sea (exorheic basin) or a lake having no outlet (closed or endorheic basin). Synonym of catchment area (*q.v.*).

**HYDROGRAPHIC REGIMEN** – Aggregate annual fluctuations in river discharge and flow rate (*q.v.*) due to specific factors (precipitation, size of water basin, etc.).

**ICE FIELD** – A mass of land ice resting on a mountain region and covering all but the highest peaks; also, a flat sheet of sea ice that is more than 5 mi (8 km) across.

**ICEBERG** – Floating mass of freshwater ice detached from a polar glacier or ice sheet most typically found in open seas and set adrift at the mercy of winds and swells; the bulk of an iceberg is under water.

**INCOME** – Total value of the proceeds from productive activities carried out by the citizens of a country within a specified period of time.

**INLAND (or INTERNAL) WATERS** – Stretches of sea overlooking the coastal belt of the territory of a state (such as bays, gulfs, and any other type of inlet) that do not border upon marginal or high seas, are delimited by a baseline separating them from the territorial waters (*q.v.*), and fall within the total sovereignty of the said state.

**ISTHMUS** – Relatively narrow strip of land bordered on two sides by water and connecting two larger bodies of land.

**KARST** – A topography formed over limestone, dolomite or gypsum and characterized by sinkholes, caves, and underground drainage.

**LAGOON** – Shallow sound, pond, or lake along a coastline, generally separated from the open sea by a low sandbank, barrier beach (*q.v.*) or coral reef; when communicating with the sea, lagoons become coastal lakes whose degree of salinity is reduced by freshwater input.

**LAND RECLAMATION** – Aggregate of human measures taken to make environmental land conditions suitable for cultivation, settlement, or other economic use by drainage of marsh areas, irrigation of arid land, organization of mountain slopes and catchment basins, reforestation, land reform, and establishment of all infrastructures (roads, settlements, etc.) necessary to make land totally productive (comprehensive land improvement).

**LANDMASS** – A very large continuous area of the Earth's crust lying above sea level; also, a continent.

**LANDSCAPE** – All of the directly perceptible and interdependent physical and human elements that coexist in a given area of the Earth's surface whose general physiognomy it delineates.

**LANDSLIDE** – Downward mass movement of loose earth and rocks, or a mixture of the two with water and mud, sliding down a mountainside or hillside under the influence of gravity, usually due to prolonged precipitation over unstable slopes.

**LATITUDE** – The angular distance north or south of the equator of a point on the Earth's surface, measured in degrees, minutes, and seconds through ninety degrees in either direction.

**LINGUISTIC MINORITY** – Human group or single individual whose native tongue differs from that generally spoken in a given country.

**LONGITUDE** – The angular distance on the Earth's surface between the meridian passing through a given point and the prime or standard meridian which passes through the Observatory at Greenwich, London, England, measured in degrees, minutes, and seconds up to 180 degrees east or west of the prime meridian.

**MANGROVE** – Plant community consisting of hydrophilous evergreen species which grow along the coast in wet tropical climates, often at the edge of forest areas, and are characterized by partly submerged adventitious aerial roots.

**MAQUIS** – Mixed scrub vegetation consisting of xerophytic, broad-leaved evergreen shrubs and small trees occurring in areas with a dry Mediterranean climate.

**MARINE TERRACE** – Step interrupting the continuity of a coastal escarpment, whose surface (remnant of a preexisting wave-cut abrasion platform) can preserve ocean deposits (sand, gravel, fossils) attesting to an earlier sea level, as also fairly often evidenced by the presence of excavated caves at the base of the cliffs.

**MARKET** – Place where commodities and services are bought and sold or, in a figurative sense, complex of relations between producers and consumers representing supply and demand and thus determining the price of the pertinent commodities and services (see exchange).

**MEANDER** – River loop that forms, usually in a series, in a flat stretch of a relatively sluggish watercourse, characterized by intensified erosion of the bank on the concave side and a build-

up of deposits on the convex side.

**MEGALOPOLIS** – Very large urban complex formed by several urban agglomerations that have spread to the point where they become linked in various ways (as the megalopolis on the northeastern seaboard of the United States stretching from Boston to Washington).

**MERIDIAN** – One of the lines of longitude of the Earth that link the North and South Poles and intersect the equator at a right angle.

**MESTIZO** – Term used in Latin America to describe a person of mixed American Indian and European, usually Spanish or Portuguese, ancestry.

**METALLIFEROUS VEIN** – Materials of magmatic origin which entered a rock fissure or crack while still in a molten state and then consolidated, forming metal ores.

**METROPOLIS** – Generic term for a major city together with its suburbs, nearby towns, and environs over which it exercises a commanding economic and social influence.

**MINORITY** – Human group or individual differing in ethnic origin from that of the predominant group in a given community.

**MOFETTE** – A small opening emitting carbon dioxide in an area of late-stage volcanic activity.

**MORaine** – An accumulation of glacial drift deposited chiefly by direct glacial action and possessing initial constructional form independent of the floor beneath it.

**MOUTH** – Terminal section of a watercourse where all entrained materials are deposited (see also delta, estuary).

**MULATTO** – Person of mixed Negro and Caucasian ancestry.

**MUNICIPALITY** – Self-governing administrative community under the jurisdiction of the laws of the state whose representative organs are periodically elected by its inhabitants.

**NATIONAL PARK** – A protected area designated and managed directly by a national government for the preservation of the natural environment, including one or more ecosystems of special scientific, educational, and recreational interest, as well as of great scenic beauty. To be recognized as a national park, its features must be approved by the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources.

**NATURE PARK** – Generic designation for an area managed for the protection and preservation of the natural environment or for its scientific or scenic interest; a distinction is made among nature parks between regional and national parks (*q.v.*), nature preserves (*q.v.*), and wildlife refuges as well as wetlands (*q.v.*).

**NATURE PRESERVE** – Area of land or water of special naturalistic and scientific interest that is protected for the purpose of preserving certain animals and/or plants; nature preserves can be general (complete protection of the environment) or specific (protection limited to well-defined objectives and situations).

**NEW TOWN** – Comprehensively planned, self-sufficient urban community recently established to relieve population pressures in overcrowded cities and including residential, industrial, and commercial districts as well as educational and recreational facilities.

**NOMADISM** – Mode of life of populations that travel from place to place, living in tents, in search of sustenance for their herds of grazing animals.

**OASIS** – Isolated fertile area, usually in the midst of a desert, with a water supply furnished by local underground springs or groundwater and sufficient to support permitting plant growth (palms) and cultivation possibilities; water can also be present from a river crossing an arid region (e.g., the Nile valley or Mesopotamia).

**ORGANOGENIC** – Property of a rock or sediment derived from organic substances.

**OROGENY** – All of the tectonic phases involved in mountain-building (folding, faulting, and thrusting); an orogeny usually marks a particularly important stage in the evolution of the Earth's crust.

**OZONE** – Gas present (in the triatomic allotrope of oxygen, i.e., O<sub>3</sub>) in the upper atmosphere, generally from 10–35 mi [15–60 km] above the Earth (stratosphere), where it forms by the action of solar radiation on oxygen and fulfills the important function of absorbing harmful ultraviolet radiation from the Sun.

**PACK ICE** – Aggregation of ice forming on the surface of the sea in polar regions due to the temperature of the water dropping below the freezing point.

**PAMPAS** – Temperate climate plain in southern South America covered with grasses.

**PARALLEL (OF LATITUDE)** – An imaginary circle on the Earth's surface formed by the intersection of a plane orthogonal to its axis of rotation and parallel to the plane of the equator. Because the Earth is a spheroid, the width of the parallels varies from a maximum at the equator to a mere point at the poles. Parallels also intersect orthogonally with the meridians, forming with them a grid of spherical trapezia of decreasing size from the equator to the poles.

**PASS** – A topographic depression in a mountain range providing a passageway between the two opposing slopes.

**PASTURELAND** – Area of open vegetation in a temperate climate, consisting predominantly of grasses for grazing.

**PEAT** – Organic fuel consisting of light, spongy vegetable matter in an advanced stage of decomposition; found in marshy or boggy soils in temperate humid environments.

**PENEPLAIN** – A base-leveled, almost featureless, plain of nonalluvial origin produced by prolonged erosion at the expense of preexisting relief.

**PERMAFROST** – Perennially frozen ground, occurring wherever the temperature remains below 0°C for several years, whether the ground is actually consolidated by ice or not and regardless of the nature of the rock and soil particles of which the Earth is composed.

**PLATE** – See tectonic plate.

**PODZOL** – Ash-colored zonal soil typical of cold to temperate moist climates whose characteristics accommodate mixed vegetation consisting sometimes of heath, sometimes of coniferous forests.

**POLAR CIRCLE** – One of the two parallels of latitude (Arctic Circle and Antarctic Circle), each 66° 33' distant from the equator; they indicate the location of the points on the Earth's surface where the Sun's rays strike tangentially when they are directly perpendicular to the tropic (*q.v.*) of the opposite hemisphere.

**POLDER** – Low-lying land, usually below sea level, near the northwest coast of Europe (Netherlands) reclaimed from the sea

by embanking with protective dikes followed by drainage and intended, after salt removal, for cultivation and settlement.

**POLLUTION** – Alteration or degradation of the physical conditions of the environment affecting, in particular, human and other organisms, caused by the release into the atmosphere, water, or soil of solid, liquid, or gaseous residues and waste materials, such as smoke, exhaust fumes, and radioactive particles.

**PROTECTED AREAS** – Areas of the Earth's surface identified by their special environmental characteristics and scientific interest and which are therefore placed under the protection of the state and public or private organizations (see also nature park, national park, nature preserve).

**PROTECTORATE** – Dependent political unit under the management and protection of a larger and more powerful state, especially in the areas of defense and diplomatic representation, with the protected state retaining some of its national sovereignty and other prerogatives under international law.

**PROVINCE** – An administrative area, sometimes partly autonomous, within a country; intermediate between the local units (municipalities, districts, etc.) and the central state.

**RAPIDS** – Turbulent flow of a river's current resulting from a variation in the slope of the stream bed which is gentler than that of a waterfall or cascade (*q.v.*).

**RESOURCE** – Natural substance or organism that may be depleted and is nonrenewable (petroleum, gas, mineral, and other deposits) or that is sustained or increased by specific human activity (agriculture, animal husbandry, industry, etc.) and used to satisfy human needs, including the economic development of the community.

**RIA** – Coastal indentation (estuary or inlet) that occurs at a river mouth and is formed by the submergence of the lower portion of the river valley.

**RIVER TERRACE** – A level surface in a river valley flanking and parallel to the river channel and above the river level, representing the uneroded remnant of a former floodplain or river bed.

**SADDLE** – Depression along a mountain range connecting two higher elevations or a low point in the crestline of a ridge that may or may not afford a pass (*q.v.*).

**SANDBAR** – Bank of sand that forms in shallow water at a short distance from the coast or at estuary mouths due to the accumulation of materials by the action of ocean currents or swells.

**SAVANNA** – Tropical or subtropical grassland characterized by scattered trees (often acacia) and mainly xerophytic shrubs.

**SCRUB** – A tract of land covered with a generally thick growth of dwarf or stunted trees and shrubs and a poor soil.

**SEBKHA** – Shallow depression found along the coast of northern Africa which becomes marshy during the rainy season until evaporation leaves an often flat, saline plain; very similar to a chott (*q.v.*).

**SERVICE (or TERTIARY) SECTOR** – Sector of the economy that creates services rather than tangible assets and includes banking, insurance, transportation and communications, wholesale and retail trade, and professional, consumer, and government services.

**SETTLEMENT** – Any form of human habitation; settlements can be sparse or concentrated, urban or rural, permanent or temporary.

**SHANTYTOWN** – Residential area on the periphery of a large city, typically seen in highly urbanized Third World countries and characterized by precarious housing crudely built of makeshift materials (metal sheets, wood, plastic, etc.)

**SMOG** – Term combining the words "smoke" and "fog"; used to describe a mixture of tiny solid particles and water droplets suspended in the air and constituting the major elements in atmospheric pollution (*q.v.*), often occurring in extended built-up areas as a result of emissions from industrial plants, household equipment, and internal-combustion engines.

**SNOW LINE** – The mean altitude relative to sea level above which snow does not melt but accumulates as permanent ice and forms glaciers. This line varies with latitude from the equator, where it exceeds 16,500 ft [5000 m], through the temperate zones (8000–10,000 ft [2400–3200 m]) to the polar areas, where it drops to sea level.

**SOLFATARA** – A fumarole (*q.v.*) from which sulfurous gases are emitted.

**SPRING** – Surfacing of water from an underground aquifer (*q.v.*) or natural discharge point of subterranean water directly into the bed of a stream, lake, or sea.

**STATE** – Political organization juridically constituted of three basic elements: a territory, a people living in it, and the sovereignty the latter exercises over the former by means of specific forms of government.

**STEPPE** – Treeless land in a semiarid climate, whether temperate or tropical, consisting predominantly of mixed grassland (alfalfa, sagewood, esparto) or spinous and xerophytic (*q.v.*) vegetation.

**STRAIT** – A comparatively narrow passage that connects two larger bodies of water and separates the opposite shores of two land areas.

**SUBMARINE RIDGE** – Symmetrical mid-ocean ridge that rises from the ocean floor and is part of a continuous mountain chain extending about 50,000 mi [80,000 km] through all the oceans of the world; generally formed of volcanic materials, or from the edges of large fractures of the Earth's crust (tectonic plates). Much of the mid-oceanic ridge system is seismically active.

**SUBMARINE TRENCH** – Deep depression on the ocean bottom at the point of contact between two tectonic plates.

**SWAMP** – Stagnant water in saturated soil with poor drainage, covered with aquatic vegetation.

**TAIGA** – Zone of forest vegetation in cold temperate climates consisting of mixed coniferous trees (spruce, pine, larch) as well as broadleaf species (birch) which cover the subarctic regions of North America and Eurasia and the northern limit of which is the 50°F [10°C] isotherm in July. Also called boreal forest.

**TECTONIC PLATE** – Structural unit of the Earth's crust subjected to vertical and translational (tangential) movements which cause it to collide with contiguous zones, resulting in deformation of their respective margins corresponding to the large systems of mountain ranges that account for the Earth's relief features or to deep ocean ridges, together with the development of intense seismic and volcanic manifestations.

**TECTONIC TRENCH** – Topographic depression limited by large fractures which have lowered its bottom or raised its margins.



**TECTONICS** – A branch of geology that deals with regional structural and deformational features of the Earth's crust, including the mutual relations, origin, and historical evolution of the features. Also known as geotectonics.

**TEMPERATURE RANGE** – Difference between the highest and lowest (mean or extreme) temperatures recorded during any selected period (day, month, year).

**TERRITORIAL WATERS** – An area of the sea generally 12 nautical miles wide extending outward from the inland waters of a state, over which it exercises direct sovereignty with regard to both the seabed below and the airspace above.

**TIME ZONE** – One division of the 24 meridian time zones into which the world has been divided on the basis of the local solar time. Each zone is about 15 degrees of longitude wide and the time kept in the area it comprises corresponds, with minor adjustments, to that of the standard central meridian. The succession of time zones is based on their relation to the Greenwich meridian, which determines Greenwich Mean Time (GMT).

**TRANSHUMANCE** – Form of pastoralism or nomadism organized around the seasonal migration of livestock between the mountainous areas which serve as summer pasturelands and the lowlands used for grazing in winter, following millenia-old itineraries (tracks); transhumance is often practiced today with modern means of transport.

**TROPIC** – Either of the two imaginary lines circling the Earth at the parallel of latitude of approximately 23° 30', both north and south of the equator, where the Sun's midday rays strike overhead during the June solstice (Tropic of Cancer in the Northern Hemisphere) and the December solstice (Tropic of Capricorn in the Southern Hemisphere).

**TUNDRA** – Treeless level or rolling ground in polar or high-mountain regions (Arctic tundra or alpine tundra), consisting of plants with a very short growing cycle and supporting dense vegetation of dwarf shrubs (willow), mosses, lichens, heather, etc., which grow in perennially frozen subsoil.

**URBANIZATION** – Phenomenon of particular economic and social relevance reflected by the tendency of a country's population to concentrate in large urban centers, the outskirts of which, as a result, may expand and/or become especially congested, in some cases with the establishment of shantytowns (*q.v.*).

**VERSANT** – The connecting area between the bottom of a valley and the summit of a mountain, of variable slope, over which superficial water flows which then collects at the bottom in streams and rivers; mountainside.

**WADI** – An Arabic term for a usually dry stream bed or channel which carries water only during rare periods of rainfall in the semiarid or desert regions of northern Africa and Arabia and is subject to seasonal flash flooding. The presence of wadis attests to the earlier existence of a highly developed hydrographic system, and hence a more humid climate, during the Quaternary period (Pleistocene epoch).

**WATERSHED** – Water-parting divide or crest line generally running along mountain ridges and separating two contiguous hydrographic basins (*q.v.*). In American usage, the term also includes the entire catchment area.

**WETLANDS** – Terrestrial ecosystem characterized by poor drainage and the presence of marshes, bogs, or natural or arti-

cial lakes, and which constitutes the habitat of plant and animal organisms (particularly birdlife) that require specific protection. The characteristics of wetlands were established in 1971 by the Ramsar Convention.

**XEROPHYTIC (XEROPHYLOUS)** – Relating to plants particularly adapted to live and grow under conditions of scarce precipitation and intense evaporation (as in a salt marsh, saline soil, or acid bog), whose foliation is reduced or transformed to spinous appendices.

# GREAT ROUTES AND VOYAGES OF DISCOVERY



## MAGELLAN'S CROSSING OF THE PACIFIC

*Between 1513 and 1517 Ferdinand Magellan (Fernão de Magalhães) developed his plan to reach the Moluccas not along the established Carreira da Índia around Africa, but from the west, passing beyond the continent-sized obstacle discovered by Columbus via a southern passage. He submitted his proposals several times to Don Manuel, but the king did not accept them because they were contrary to the interests of Portugal, meaning that he wanted to protect the spice routes already in existence around the Cape of Good Hope. This rebuffed Magellan, like Columbus before him, to turn to Portugal's direct competitors in colonial expansion, namely the kings of Castile. On October 20, 1517, in Seville, he became a subject of Charles I of Spain, (later Charles V of the Holy Roman Empire). A royal capitulation of March 1518 named him captain general of the expedition.*

*On September 20, 1519, the five ships of the Armada de Molucca (Trinidad, San Antonio, Concepción, Victoria, and Santiago) departed from Sanlúcar de Barrameda. The expedition's route is known primarily from the Chronicle of the first voyage around the world written by Antonio Pigafetta of Vivencia, which reveals Magellan's excellent qualities as a mariner and a commander. After calling at the Cape Verde islands, the ships wintered (March 1520) at Puerto San Julian on the coast of Argentina. The voyage continued, with the loss of the Santiago by shipwreck, along the coast of South America. On October 21 the Cape of the Eleven Thousand Virgins was sighted, the mouth of the long-sought channel leading to the East. While passing through the strait the San Antonio deserted and returned to Seville; the other ships entered the Pacific on November 28, 1520, sailed up the Chilean coast, and having arrived at 32° or 34° S latitude, set out to the northwest, finally reaching the island of Guam on March 6, 1521. From Guam the fleet reached the Philippines (first called the Islas de San Lazaro), where Magellan got involved in local wars and, during one encounter on the island of Mactán, was killed on April 27, 1521. The Concepción was abandoned and the two remaining ships began to wander in search of the Spice Islands, which they found in November 1521. The Spaniards took on spices at Tidore, but the possibility of being intercepted by the Portuguese led them to divide the goods. The Trinidad attempted to return via the Pacific, but after several fruitless attempts had to give up and was captured by the Portuguese; the Victoria, with Pigafetta aboard and under the command of Juan Sebastián de Elcano, returned around the Cape of Good Hope, but following a route different from the Carreira da Índia. On September 6, 1522, the 18 survivors on the Victoria set foot on land after the first circumnavigation of the globe.*



- - - First voyage of J. Cook (1768-71)
- - - First part of second voyage of J. Cook (1772-73)
- - - Second part of second voyage of J. Cook (1773-74)
- Third part of second voyage of J. Cook (1774-75)
- Third voyage of J. Cook (1776-79)
- ✚ Death of J. Cook (1779)
- Continuation of the voyage by C. Clerke and J. King (1779-80)





## JAMES COOK'S VOYAGES TO AUSTRALIA

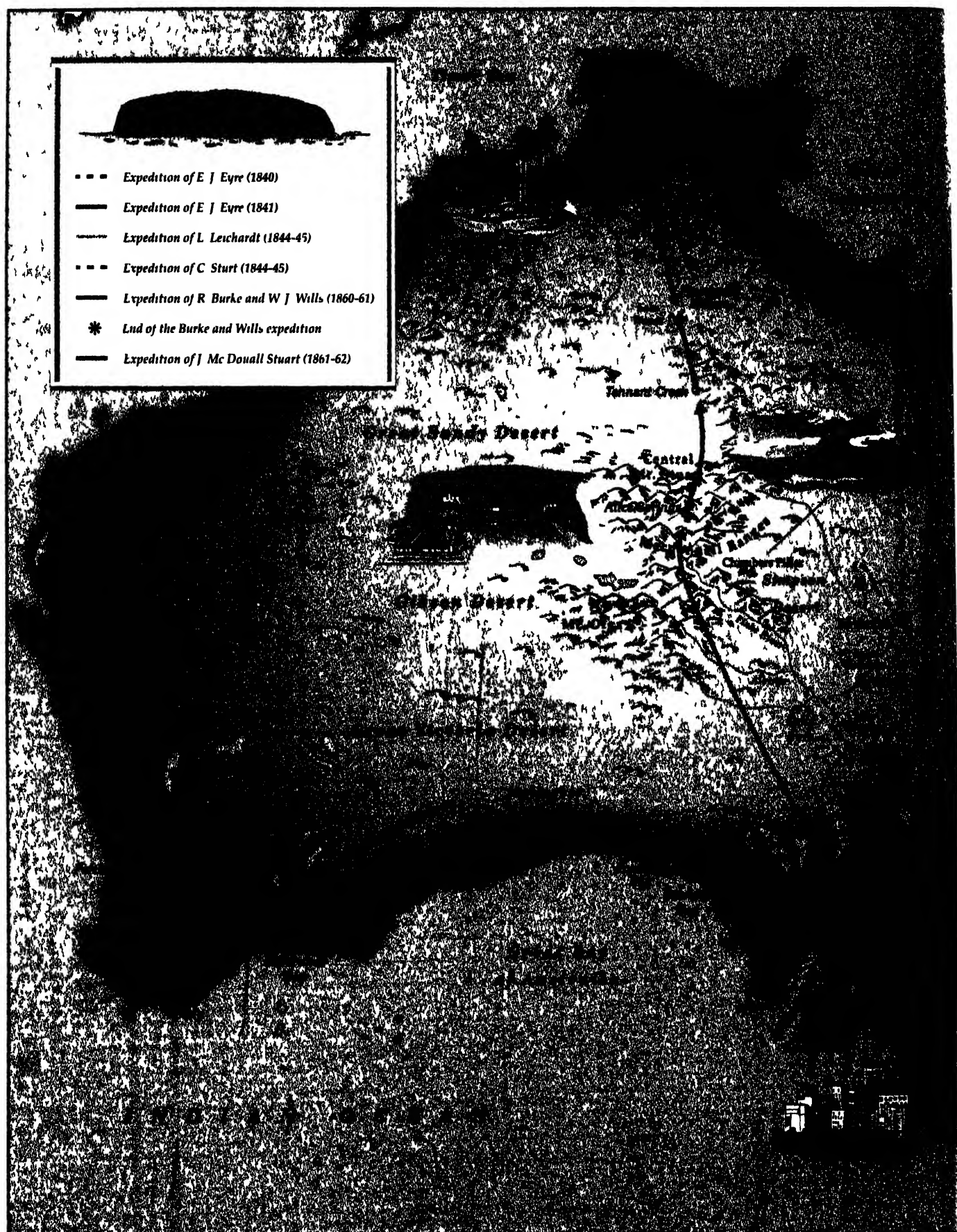
*The voyages of James Cook (1768–79), like the earlier expedition of Louis Antoine de Bougainville (1766–69), were part of the new spirit of global exploration that emerged in the century of the Enlightenment, impelled by a blend of scientific inquiry and geopolitical interest in world domination.*

*The main scientific purpose of Cook's first expedition (1768–71), organized by the Admiralty and the Royal Society, was to observe the transit of Venus across the sun; the political goals, however, included oceanic reconnaissance that would allow England to compete with France in securing strategic positions in the Southern Hemisphere. The most important results, in addition to contact with the populations of Tahiti where the astronomical observation base was established, were the circumnavigation of New Zealand and the discovery that it consisted of two islands, the exploration of part of the Australian coast (where Sydney would later be established), and the confirmation that Australia and New Guinea were two separate land masses.*

*The purpose of the second voyage (1772–75) was to get as close as possible to the South Pole to determine whether any large continents or islands existed there. Cook thus became the first explorer to penetrate beyond the Antarctic Circle, and continued to about 70° S latitude where he was halted by pack ice and icebergs. During the first part of the voyage he concluded that if an Antarctic continent existed, it lay at such extreme latitudes that it would be of no economic interest. On the return voyage across the Pacific, he discovered the New Hebrides, New Caledonia, and the South Sandwich Islands.*

*The third exploratory voyage by James Cook (1776–79) was organized to confirm the possibility of a Northwest passage starting from the Pacific. The expedition therefore sailed from Plymouth, rounded the Cape of Good Hope, and after calling at New Zealand and Tahiti, headed for North America, exploring the coast from present-day Oregon to Alaska. In July 1778 Cook's vessels (*Resolution* and *Discovery*) entered the Bering Sea, continuing to 70°29' N where they were halted by ice. Cook decided to postpone his explorations until the following year, and sailed his ships back to winter in the Sandwich Islands. On February 24, 1779, on Hawaii, the largest island of the archipelago, Cook was killed during a skirmish with the natives. The commander of the *Discovery*, Charles Clerke, nevertheless made one more attempt to find a passage leading from the Pacific to the Atlantic; following the failure of this undertaking and Clerke's own death, the ships returned to England under the command of James King, arriving in August 1780.*



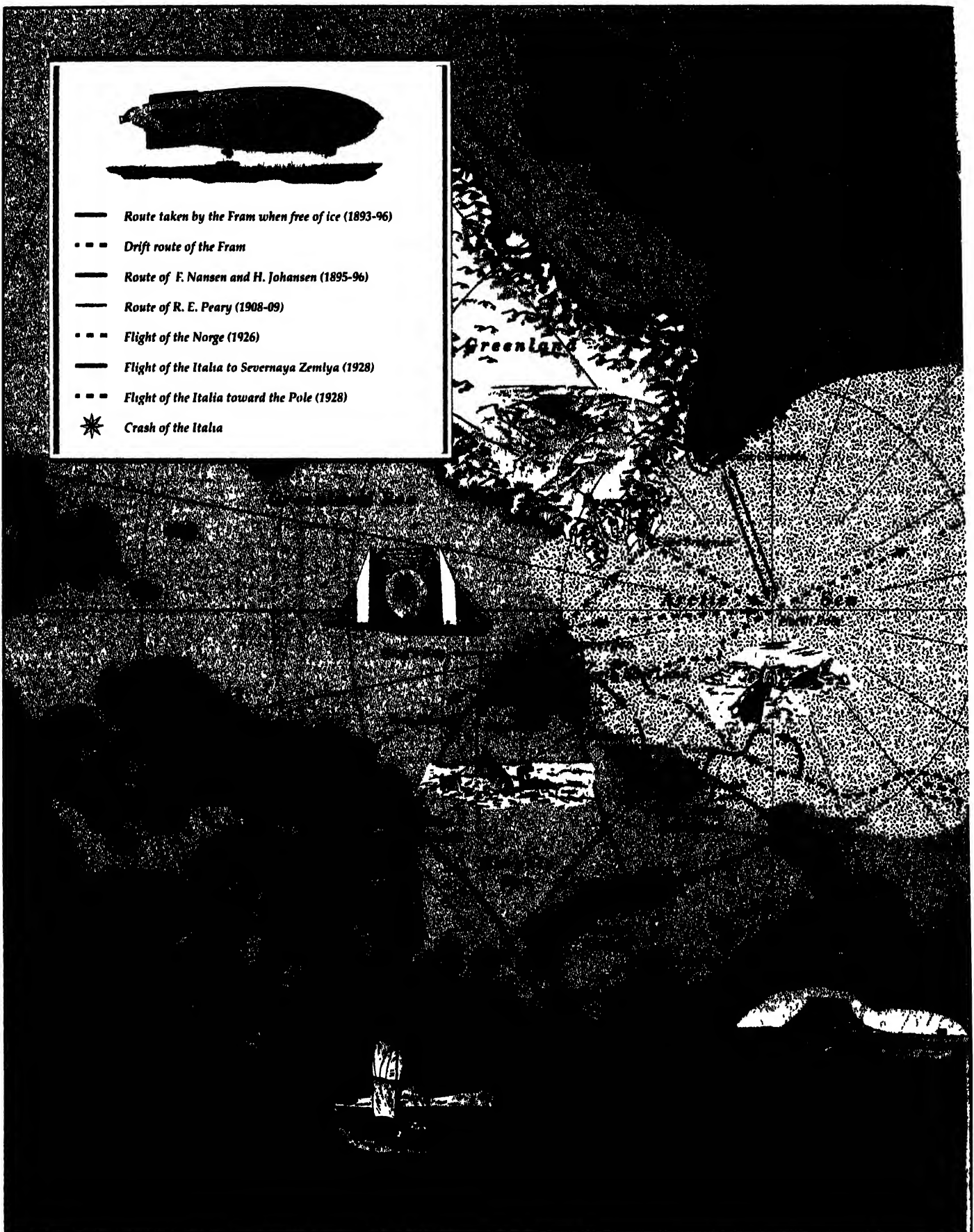


## STUART'S CROSSING OF THE AUSTRALIAN CONTINENT

*From the European point of view, Australia began to gain importance when England, overburdened with convicts, needed to find an overseas penal outlet as an alternative to North America, which had thrown off the colonial yoke. The results of James Cook's explorations (1768–71) were therefore considered sufficiently promising to start a penal colony that might some day become self-sufficient. Such a colony was established in 1788 at a point not far from Botany Bay, a place explored by Cook, in the inlet called Sydney Cove. The British colony rapidly expanded, at the expense of the native peoples and with the aid of forced labor.*

*The need for new animal pastures, arable lands, and water resources led the British to organize the first expeditions to the interior, almost always mounted, or at least sponsored, by the colonial government. Each expedition had to struggle against particularly adverse environmental conditions, but it was above all the ability to locate water that determined success or failure.*

*The first explorer who attempted to cross the entire continent was Edward John Eyre, who set out from Spencer Gulf and attempted to reach the center of Australia, pressing on from there to Port Essington (1840). His expedition did not manage to penetrate beyond what is now called Lake Eyre, but after his return to the coast, the leader explored the extremely arid coastal region. From Fowlers Bay he traveled all the way to Albany, where he arrived almost dead, surviving only thanks to the assistance of an aborigine. The desire to establish a land route between Sydney and Port Essington, regarded as the main port for trade with India, and later the need to build a transcontinental telegraph line, with the lure of a substantial prize for the first person to open up the route, stimulated new explorations of the interior. The most important were those of Ludwig Leichardt (1844–45), Charles Stuart (1844–45), and Robert O'Hara Burke and William Hohn Wills (1860–61), which came to a tragic end. Burke and Wills set out from Melbourne and reached the Gulf of Carpentaria, but on their return, due to a series of errors of judgment, only one member of the expedition managed to escape death by starvation. It was the surveyor John McDouall Stuart, who after two failed attempts (1860 and 1861) finally succeeded in crossing the immense continent, reaching Van Diemen Gulf on the north coast on July 24, 1862. Stuart did indeed blaze a trail for installation of a telegraph line which went into operation nine years later, linking south to north and connecting Australia to the rest of the world.*



## THE ARCTIC ROUTE (NANSEN AND NOBILE)

**U**ntil the 19th century, exploration of the polar regions was driven by the search for routes connecting Europe with Asia via southwest, northwest, or northeast passages.

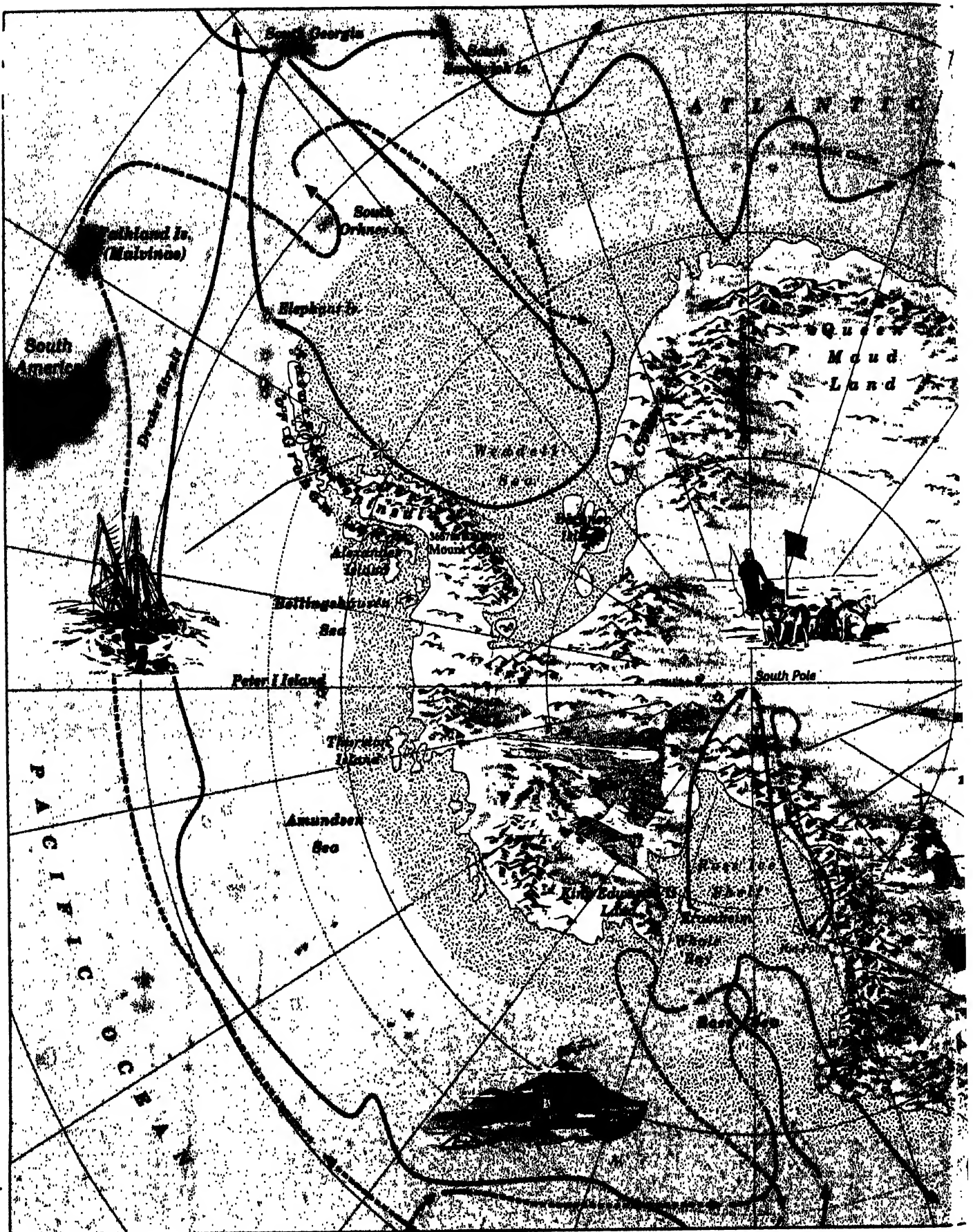
From 1879 to 1881 an American expedition, led by George Washington de Long, attempted to reach the North Pole by sea on the steam yacht *Jeannette*. The ship was trapped in ice and its occupants died of hunger. Traces of this expedition were discovered in Greenland, suggesting to the Norwegian explorer Fridtjof Nansen that polar currents moved from the coasts of Alaska and Siberia toward Greenland. He concluded that the same route could be utilized by a ship built to withstand the pressure of the ice. In June 1893 this ship, christened *Fram* ("Onward"), sailed from Christiania (Oslo) with a crew of 13 and enough provisions for five years. The *Fram* was imprisoned in ice at the end of September 1893 near the New Siberian Islands, and thereafter drifted irregularly. At a latitude of about 84° N the pack ice headed westward, carrying them away from the Pole. At this point Nansen and Hjalmar Johansen left the ship with three sleds, 28 dogs, and two kayaks, and headed north; but at about 86°, the most northerly point ever reached until then, they were forced to turn back. The two explorers returned back toward Franz Josef Land; on June 17 they reached Cape Flora, where they met up with the Jackson-Harmsworth expedition which saved their lives.

The first to reach at least the vicinity of the North Pole, however, was the American Robert Edwin Peary, who used Eskimo survival techniques and succeeded in presumably reaching his goal on April 6, 1909.

In 1925 the Amundsen, Ellsworth and Nobile expedition was organized; it was named after its scientific director, chief source of funding, and expedition commander, respectively. The voyage was undertaken using the semirigid dirigible *Norge*, which lifted off from Rome, reached Svalbard (Spitsbergen), and on May 11, 1926, continued its flight toward the village of Teller in Alaska. The success of the *Norge* indicated the possibility of using Arctic skies as an intercontinental route.

In 1928 Umberto Nobile tried to repeat this feat with the dirigible *Italia*. After two reconnaissance flights he made a third voyage which brought the *Italia* to the Pole, which he flew over for two hours. On the return flight the *Italia* crashed as a result of ice that had formed on the covering, landing on the pack ice only 180 miles from Svalbard. On impact, some members of the crew were thrown clear onto the ice, while others remained on the *Italia*. Nothing more was ever heard from the dirigible, but Nobile and most of those who landed on the ice were rescued.





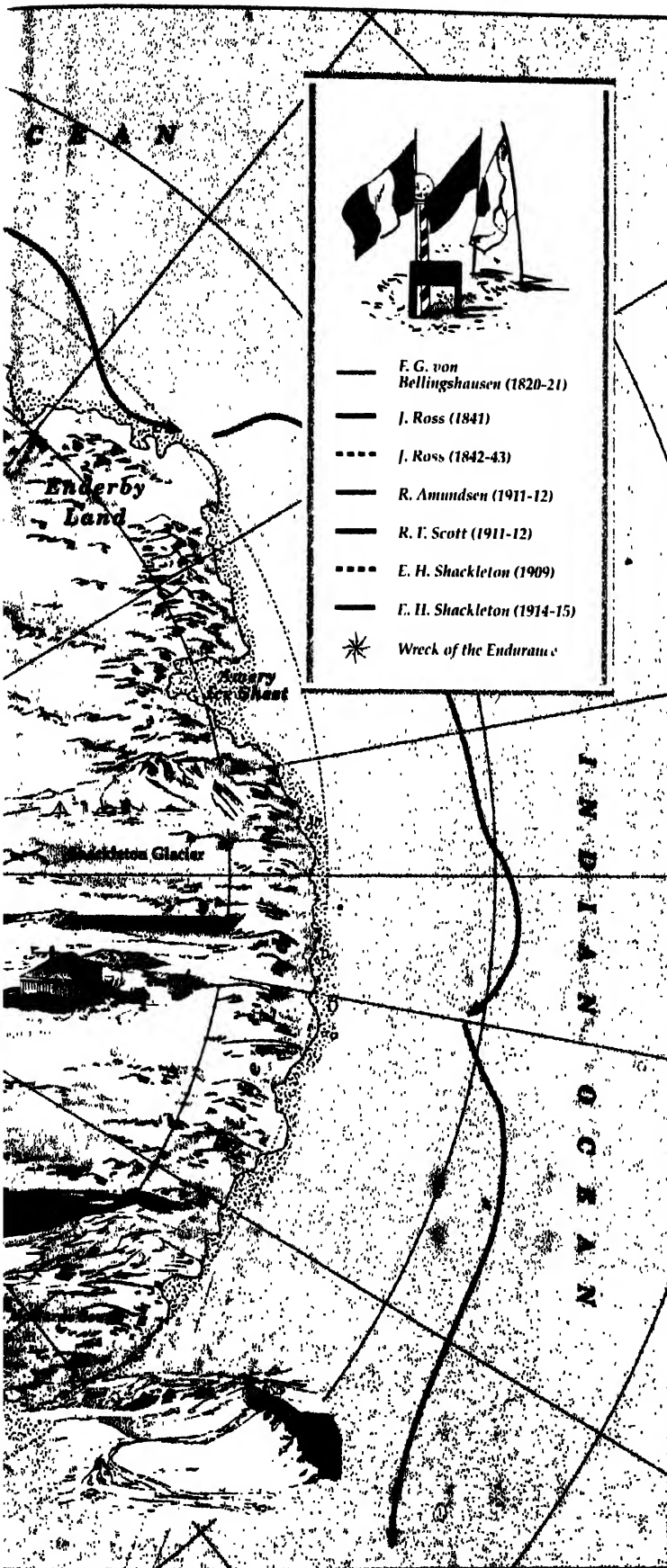
## THE CONQUEST OF THE SOUTH POLE

Captain James Cook earned the distinction of being the first European to sail beyond the Antarctic Circle, which he did three times between 1772 and 1774. It was not until January 19, 1839, however, that two expeditions, one French commanded by Jules-Sébastien-César Dumont d'Urville and the other American under Charles Wilkes, discovered the Antarctic continent; until then only the outer islands had been known.

From 1843 to 1890 no expedition, private or public, approached Antarctica; it was whaling that led to frequent voyages to the region. The Anglo-Norwegian Borchgrevink expedition (1898) succeeded not only in setting foot for the first time in Antarctica, but also in overwintering there despite temperatures consistently far below zero, 75 days of darkness at 71° S latitude, and extraordinarily strong winds.

Between 1900 and 1912 expeditions were organized by Britain, Germany, Sweden, and France. During the 1902 voyage financed by Britain's Royal Geographic Society, Lieutenant Robert Falcon Scott and his party, including Ernest H. Shackleton (who would later become one of the greatest polar explorers), reached 82°17' S latitude and spent the winter at Hut Point, a promontory on Ross Island, one of the Antarctic regions closest to South America.

Scott had begun to prepare a new Antarctic expedition in 1907, and set out in 1910. At Melbourne he received a telegram from the Norwegian Roald Amundsen, who informed him of his own intention to head for Antarctica at the same time. In early 1911 Scott succeeded in putting ashore at Hut Point, located west of the 180° meridian. Amundsen, however, found a landing place farther east that was a good 70 miles closer to the Pole, where he set up his well-furnished camp called Framheim. From the two base camps each expedition wanted to head as directly as possible for the Pole. And in fact once they had climbed the coastal escarpment, both found themselves on a plateau that rose gently toward the center. The highest points on the journeys—about 11,150 ft [3400 m] for Amundsen and 10,500 ft [3200 m] for Scott—were not far from the South Pole, which itself lies at an elevation of about 9,200 ft [2800 m]. Amundsen reached it on December 14, 1911, stayed there with four companions for three days, made a 12.5-mile circuit around it “to make sure we hadn't missed it,” and returned to base with all his men safe and sound. Scott also reached the Pole in about a month, arriving on January 18, 1912, and finding to his great disappointment that Amundsen had preceded him. The return trip was tragic: all five members of the expedition died. The last three, including the leader, were overcome by a violent storm and bitter cold only a few miles from their base camp; they were found in November of the following year along with their effects which included photographs and journals.







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# INDEX OF NAMES

- Aachen 4: 184, 206  
 Aalto, Alvar 4: 130, 136  
 Aarigi 4: 202  
 Abaco Island 2: 143, 144  
 Abadan 3: 32, 35  
 Abbad, Said bin 3: 50  
 Abbad, Sulaiman bin 3: 50  
 Abbasid dynasty 3: 8, 21, 36, 39, 50, 55, 4: 286, 312, 314  
 Abbe, Lake 1: 108, 112, 113  
 Abd al Aziz 3: 19, 21, 22  
 Abd al Aziz, Mosque of 1: 116  
 Abd al Karim Qallab 1: 30  
 Abd al Karim Kassem 3: 40  
 Abd al Malik 1: 30, 3: 13, 50  
 Abd Allah ibn al Husayn 3: 30  
 Abd el Kader 1: 15  
 Abd el Karim 1: 30  
 Abd al Rahman 3: 15, 16  
 Abdallah I, amir 1: 30  
 Abdou el Hassan 1: 30  
 Abeche 1: 62, 63  
 Abengomrou 1: 152  
 Abokuta 1: 169, 170  
 Aberdare Range 1: 224  
 Abgal people 1: 116  
 Abi 1: 169  
 Abidjan 1: 6, 151, 152, 153, 181, 182  
 Abkhazia, Autonomous Republic of 4: 290  
 Abosso 1: 152  
 Abomey 1: 145, 146, 182  
 Abomey people 1: 179  
 Aborigines 5: 3, 5, 6, 10, 15, 16, 42  
 Aboveau, Khachatur 4: 286  
 Abnuzz, Duke d' 5: 90  
 Abnuzzo (Abnuzz) 4: 21, 22  
 Abnuzzo forest 4: 20  
 Abnuzzo National Park 4: 20  
 Absaroka Mountains 2: 25  
 Abu al Bukhoosh 3: 27  
 Abu Dhabi 3: 6, 26, 27, 28  
 Abu Jamash 1: 24  
 Abu Musa 3: 27  
 Abu Safah 3: 20  
 Abu Smibel temple 1: 20  
 Abu'l-Khayr 4: 292  
 Abuja 1: 5, 168, 169, 170  
 Abune Yosef, Mount 1: 117, 118  
 Aby lagoon 1: 151, 156  
 Abyan 3: 61  
 Abyssinia 3: 351  
 Abyssinian Plateau 1: 109  
 Abyssinians 1: 111, 118, 3: 62  
 Acadia 2: 22  
 Acapulco 2: 100, 104, 116  
 Accaray 2: 303  
 Accion Democratica (Venezuela) 2: 210  
 Accra 1: 5, 156, 157, 158  
 Aceli 3: 302  
 Accedo Hernandez, Antonio 2: 246  
 Achean people 3: 59, 63, 4: 18, 24  
 Achaemenid Empire 3: 36, 66, 315  
 Achebe, Chinua 1: 172  
 Acklins Island 2: 143  
 Aconcagua, Mount 2: 237, 213, 291, 309  
 Aconcagua region 2: 215, 246  
 Aconcagua River 2: 309  
 Acosta, Cecilio 2: 210  
 Acosta, Oscar 2: 98  
 Acre (Brazil) 2: 191  
 Acre (Israel) 3: 351  
 Adal kingdom 1: 116  
 Adam, Hans 4: 185  
 Adam, Johann 4: 188  
 Adam, Mount 2: 336  
 Adamaoua (province, Cameroon) 1: 212  
 Adamawa (state, Nigeria) 1: 169  
 Adamawa (Adamawa) massif 1: 62, 144, 211, 212, 213  
 Adams, Henry 2: 43  
 Adams, John 2: 41  
 Adams, Sir Grantley 2: 146  
 Adam's Peak 3: 128  
 Adamstown 5: 39  
 Adama 3: 57, 58  
 Adangme people 1: 157  
 Adare, Cape 5: 94  
 Addis Ababa 1: 5, 108, 110, 111, 112, 113, 118  
 Addo Elephant National Park 1: 297  
 Adelaide 5: 7, 11, 12, 14  
 Aden 3: 61, 62, 65  
 Aden, Gulf of 1: 105, 112, 114, 116  
 Adena culture 2: 6  
 Adi Ugri 1: 107  
 Adiga, Serra da 4: 84  
 Adirondack Mountains 2: 25  
 Adirasi peoples 3: 109  
 Adja people 1: 145  
 ADOC (Democratic Alliance for Civic Opposition) [Panama] 2: 114  
 Adorno, Theodor 4: 186  
 Adramitae 3: 343  
 Adrar (Algeria) 1: 13  
 Adrar (Mauritania) 1: 70  
 Adrar des Horas Mountains (Mali) 1: 65  
 Adrar massif (Algeria) 1: 11  
 Adrar Plateau (Mauritania) 1: 69  
 Adrianople 3: 59  
 Adrianople, Peace of 4: 257  
 Adyger 4: 299  
 Adyger, Sea 4: 19, 243  
 Adzgar 4: 299  
 Adzharistan, Republic of 4: 290  
 Adzope 1: 152  
 Aegean Archipelago 4: 12  
 Aegean coast 3: 58  
 Aegean Sea 4: 14, 31  
 Aegid 4: 14  
 Aequi people 4: 24  
 Aeschylus 4: 7  
 Aesti people 4: 122  
 Aeta people 3: 296  
 Aetars 1: 113, 117  
 Afghan dynasty 3: 116  
 Afghani people 3: 13, 64, 66, 125  
 Afghanistan 3: 2, 6, 11, 13, 16, 31, 36, 64, 65, 125, 351, 4: 305  
 AFL (American Federation of Labor) 2: 33  
 ALPFI (Anti Fascist People's Freedom League) [Myanmar] 3: 250  
 Africa 1: 1, 339, 2: 1, 4: 1, 10, 5: 131  
 Africa, British possessions in 1: 5, 336, 337  
 Africa, Eastern 1: 105, 118, 209, 236, 351  
 Africa, Equatorial 1: 207, 248  
 Africa, French possessions in 1: 5, 335, 336  
 Africa, Horn of 1: 3, 4  
 Africa, Mediterranean 1: 9, 40  
 Africa, Portuguese possessions in 1: 5, 337  
 Africa, Sahel 1: 4, 61, 85, 144, 147, 148, 169, 170, 182, 211  
 Africa, Southern 1: 273-320  
 Africa, Spanish possessions in 1: 5, 337, 338  
 Africa, Western 1: 143-183  
 Africa, Yemenite possessions in 1: 5, 338  
 African Democratic Assembly (RDA) 1: 68, 153  
 African Middle Ages 1: 7  
 African National Congress (ANC) [South Africa] 1: 300  
 African Party for the Independence of Cape Verde (PAICV) 1: 150  
 African Party for the Independence of Guinea and Cape Verde (PAIGC) 1: 150, 163, 164  
 African-American people 2: 9, 29, 30, 42, 46  
 Afrikaans language 1: 298, 299  
 Afrikaners 1: 297, 298  
 Afro-Asiatic languages 5: 151  
 Agadez 1: 72, 73, 79  
 Agadu 1: 27, 28, 29  
 Agalepa Islands 1: 289  
 Agnia 5: 10  
 Agboville 1: 152  
 Age of Reason 4: 7  
 Agesta 4: 143  
 Agilabite dynasty 1: 7  
 Agni Buvai District 4: 299  
 Agion Oros 4: 14  
 Agni people 1: 15  
 Agria 3: 134  
 Agricola, Mikael 4: 130  
 Agna Escudida, Meseta de 2: 100  
 Agna y Luz theater 2: 169  
 Agnadilla 2: 340  
 Aguan River 2: 96  
 Aguano River 2: 253  
 Aguas Dulces National Park 2: 305  
 Agnascientes 2: 102  
 Agullas Current 1: 296  
 Agullas, Cape 1: 1  
 Agung, Mount 3: 300  
 Agusan River 3: 296  
 Alaggar Mountains 1: 11, 12, 72  
 Alhidjo, Ahmadou 1: 213  
 Ahmadabad 3: 109, 113  
 Ahmad al, 3: 45  
 Ahmed el Mansur 1: 30  
 Ahmed Selim 1: 30  
 Ahmed Muhammad 1: 76, 78  
 Ahuachapan 2: 91  
 Ahvaz 3: 33  
 Alivenanmaa (Aland) Archipelago 4: 128, 129  
 Aichi 3: 192  
 Ahdid, Mohammed Farah 1: 116  
 Ain Chok-Hay Hassani 1: 28  
 Ain Delfia 1: 13  
 Ain Sebba Hay Mohamed 1: 28  
 Ain Temouchent 1: 13  
 Ainu people 3: 4, 192, 198  
 Air massif 1: 72  
 Aisen 2: 244  
 Antipe 3: 293  
 Aizo people 1: 115  
 Ajaccio 4: 64  
 Ajanta Range 3: 134  
 Ajakuta 1: 171  
 Ajlabya 1: 23  
 Ajjer, Lassih 1: 11  
 Ajlun 3: 28  
 Ajman 3: 26, 27, 28  
 Akaki 1: 111  
 Akan people 1: 152, 157, 181  
 Akbar the Great 3: 116  
 Akdeniz kıyısı 3: 58  
 Akershus 4: 138  
 Akh, people 3: 258, 268  
 Akhdar, Diebel al (Libya) 1: 22, 23  
 Akhdar, Ibel al (Oman) 3: 49  
 Akhundzada, Mirza Fath Ali 4: 287  
 Akidito, emperor of Japan 3: 201  
 Akita 3: 192  
 Akjont 1: 70, 71, 80  
 Akkadians 3: 8, 39  
 Akko (Acre) 3: 351  
 Akordat 1: 107  
 Akosombo Dam 1: 156, 158  
 Akouta 1: 73  
 Akrotiri Bay 3: 25  
 Aksim (Asumi) kingdom 1: 7, 105, 107, 109, 111, 118, 3: 2  
 Aktyubinsk 4: 292  
 Aku people 1: 154  
 Akmeyri 4: 131, 132  
 Akwa Ibom 1: 169  
 Akwaba 1: 158  
 Alabama 2: 31, 35  
 Al ADI (Latin American Integration Association) 2: 84  
 Alagoas 2: 191, 196  
 Alajuela (city) 2: 88, 89  
 Alajuela (province) 2: 88  
 Alamanni people 4: 25, 204  
 Alamein, Battle of el 1: 25  
 Aland (Ahvenanmaa) Archipelago 4: 128, 129  
 Alan people 4: 87, 93  
 Alaotra, Lake 1: 283, 285  
 Alash Orda movement 4: 293  
 Alaska 2: 6, 11, 13, 21, 24, 26, 27, 28, 31, 37, 46, 120, 5: 85, 89, 90, 99  
 Alaska Highway 2: 120  
 Alaska Mountains 2: 26, 45  
 Alaungmya dynasty 3: 249  
 Alaverdi 4: 285  
 Alawites 3: 52, 56

- Alba 4: 250  
 Albania 4: 4 232 233 235 248  
 Albanian Alps 4: 233 245 257  
 Alban in people 4: 232 233 245 248  
 Albano Lake 4: 13  
 Albert I king of Monaco 4: 29  
 Albert Lake 1: 105 207 237  
 Alberta 2: 13, 14 15 17 19 23 45 47 120  
 Albertine dynasty 4: 175  
 Albina 2: 204  
 Albion 4: 25  
 Albion 4: 123 124  
 Alcaeus 4: 7  
 Alcalá Hugo Rodríguez 2: 304  
 Alcatraz 2: 47  
 Aldabra Archipelago 1: 248  
 Aldian Shield 4: 297  
 Alebna 1 zekiel 5: 32  
 Alegre Francisco Xavier 2: 106  
 Alegria Ciro 2: 262  
 Alejandro 2: 198  
 Alémbert Jean Le Rond d 4: 9  
 Alentejo 4: 84 85 96  
 Aleppo 3: 53 54  
 Aletsch Glacier 4: 2  
 Aleut people 5: 88  
 Aleutian Islands 2: 1 76 5: 85 89  
 Alexander prince of Battenberg 4: 241  
 Alexander I czar of Russia 4: 130 304  
 Alexander I Karageorgevich king of Yugoslavia 4: 247  
 Alexander I regent of Serbia 4: 244  
 Alexander II czar of Russia 4: 130 304  
 Alexander III (the Great) king of Macedonia 1: 70 3: 8 16 39 53 59 334 335 4: 7 231 248 312 311  
 Alexander VI pope 2: 197  
 Alexandretta 3: 59  
 Alexandria 1: 17 18 19 20 3: 349  
 Alexandrian Library 1: 20  
 Alexis I czar of Russia 3: 9 4: 303  
 Alfa Romeo 4: 22  
 Alfiéri Vittorio 4: 26  
 Alford Plain 4: 253 254 255  
 Alfonsín Raúl 2: 299  
 Alfonso I Henriques the Conqueror 4: 87  
 Alfonso VI king of Leon 4: 93  
 Alfonso XIII king of Spain 4: 94  
 Alfred the Great king of Wessex 5: 88  
 Alfuro people 3: 301  
 Algaun Alps 4: 173  
 Algeria 1: 5 8 10 16 40 45 335 5: 164  
 Algerian Communist Party (PCA) 1: 15  
 Algerian Popular Party (PPA) 1: 15  
 Algiers 1: 5 10 11, 12 13 15 36  
 Algora Bay 1: 298  
 Algonquian people 2: 15, 21  
 Alhambra 4: 94  
 Ali Bey River 3: 63  
 Ali Kapu Mosque 1: 34  
 Ali Sabieh 1: 113  
 Ali Shah Mosque 3: 34  
 Alia Ramiz 4: 235  
 Alakmon River 4: 15  
 Alanza Popular Revolutionaria Americana (APRA) Party (Peru) 2: 262  
 Aléghéri Dancé 4: 11 25  
 Alshabbana Lakdu 3: 305  
 Ali Indir Muslim League 3: 118 127  
 Allahabad 3: 106  
 Alencar Salvador 2: 245, 247  
 Alliance for Progress 2: 8  
 Allies (Allied Powers) 2: 7 4: 4: 10  
 Alma Ata 4: 4 291 292, 293  
 Almanzor Plaza de 4: 88  
 Almohads 1: 25 30  
 Almoravids 1: 7 30 68 71 175  
 Aloa kingdom of 1: 78  
 Aloha Island 5: 40  
 Aloha tower 5: 43  
 Alps 4: 11 18 64 68 172 180 199 201 (*see also* specific regions as listed below)  
 Alps Albanian 4: 233 235 257  
 Alps Algaun 4: 173  
 Alps Apuane 4: 19  
 Alps Aestine 4: 18  
 Alps Australian 5: 7 8  
 Alps Carnic 4: 173  
 Alps Carinthian 4: 18  
 Alps Cottian 4: 18  
 Alps Dinaric 4: 14 172 236 242 245 257  
 Alps Dolomitic 4: 18 31  
 Alps Gailtaler 4: 173  
 Alps Graian 4: 18  
 Alps Gurktaler 4: 173  
 Alps Julian 4: 18 19 172 199 205  
 Alps Kammik 4: 199  
 Alps Karawanken 4: 177 178  
 Alps Lepontine 4: 18 19  
 Alps Lignian 4: 18  
 Alps Maritime 4: 18  
 Alps New Zealand 5: 2  
 Alps Noric 4: 172  
 Alps Ostaler 4: 173  
 Alps Pennine 4: 18  
 Alps Rhaetian 4: 18 173  
 Alps Sava 4: 199  
 Alps Southern (New Zealand) 5: 24 25 41  
 Alps Southern Calcareous 4: 199  
 Alps Stubai 4: 173  
 Alps Tirolean 4: 173  
 Alps Tyrolean 4: 219 251  
 Alps Venetian 4: 18  
 Alps Zillertal 4: 173  
 Alsace (Alsatt) 4: 66 68  
 Alta Verapaz 2: 94  
 Altagracia de Orituco 2: 208  
 Altai 4: 299 302  
 Altai Mountains 3: 202 4: 291 297  
 Altamira Caves 5: 173  
 Altanbulak 3: 204  
 Altin Desert 2: 115  
 Altis Museum 4: 206  
 Altiplano 2: 81 238  
 Atto Pico 4: 84  
 Alto Adige 4: 2  
 Alto Gothic castle 4: 136  
 Alto Parigui 2: 307  
 Alto Parana 2: 302  
 Altona 5: 14  
 Altos Chichumatanes mas 4: 2: 92 93  
 Altos Hornos 2: 116  
 Altun Mountains 3: 170  
 Aluminati Bahran 3: 23  
 Alutitaj 4: 287  
 Alvarado Pedro de 2: 92 95 98  
 Alvsborg 4: 143  
 Alzette River 4: 83  
 Amacuro Delta 2: 206  
 Amado Jorge 2: 199  
 Amadora 4: 86  
 Amager Island 4: 116  
 Amambay Sierra de 3: 300  
 Amambay 2: 302  
 Amara 2: 708  
 Amanollah Khan king of Afghanistan 3: 15 16  
 Amapa 2: 191 196  
 Ampila 2: 98  
 Amari Plateau 1: 108  
 Amara Ferreira do 3: 710  
 Amara mba Lake 1: 291  
 Amara mba 3: 718  
 AmaSwazi people 1: 297 301  
 Amazon Basin 2: 2 1 82 188  
 Amazon Cooperation Treaty 2: 84  
 Amazon forest 2: 2 7 211 212  
 Amazon River 2: 2 81 188 189 190 196 211  
 Amazonas 2: 191 207 250 258  
 Amazonia 2: 3 4 8 84 187 212  
 Ambei Mountain National Park 1: 284  
 Amboseli National Park 1: 224 247 248 5: 173  
 Ambouli 1: 113  
 Ambrym Island 5: 36 37  
 Amedamit Mount 1: 117  
 America Amazonia 3: 3 4 8 81 187 212  
 America Andean 2: 4 237 264  
 America Anglo Saxon 2: 1 9 48  
 America Central 2: 1 2 3 4 81 82 83 84 85 99 108 114  
 America Latin 2: 4 5 8 13 81 116  
 America North 2: 2 3 8 85 3: 2 4: 1 5: 85 89 131  
 America South 2: 2 3 5 6 81 82 83 187 4: 1 5: 131  
 American Civil War 2: 10 29 42  
 American Indians (*see* Amerind people)  
 American Falls 2: 45  
 American Federation of Labor (AFL) 2: 43  
 American people 5: 22 (*see also* African American people Amerind people *Indios* Inuit people)  
 American Plate 2: 141  
 American Revolution 2: 10  
 American Samoa 5: 3 10 42  
 Americas 2: 1 341  
 Americas British possessions in the 2: 4  
 Americas Caribbean Islands 2: 7 1 51 82 83 84 85 111 170  
 Americas Danish possessions in the 2: 4  
 Americas Dutch possessions in the 2: 4  
 Americas French possessions in the 2: 4  
 Americas Plata region 2: 1 189 310  
 Americas U.S. possessions in the 2: 4  
 Amerind Iberian people 1: 165 166  
 Amerind people 2: 11 12 15 21 22 29 30 45 46 87 88 101 104 105 109 113 115 206 203 207 211 212 244 249 255 263 338 5: 88 173 (*see also* *Indios*)  
 Amerindian languages 5: 151  
 Amhara people 1: 105 109 117  
 Amherst 3: 246  
 Amnata Monte 4: 22  
 Amiens Peace of 2: 168  
 Amn Idri 2: 249  
 Amrante Isles 1: 232  
 Amman 3: 6 78 29 30  
 Ammassali 5: 86  
 Ammon Temple 3: 335  
 Ammonites 3: 29  
 Ampato Mount 2: 257  
 Amphictyonic Congress (League) of Pinama 2: 84  
 Amritsar 3: 133  
 Amsterdam 4: 1 188 189 190 205 206  
 Amsterdam Bank of 2 339  
 Amu Dary river 3: 13 15 16 4: 306 407 311 312  
 Amuas 2: 08  
 Amundsen Roald 5: 90 94  
 Amun 4: 297  
 Amur River 3: 3 171 172 4: 297  
 Amur Valley 4: 300  
 An Giang 3: 263  
 An Nafud Desert 3: 17 18, 63  
 An Najaf 3: 38  
 Ana Chaves 1: 230  
 Anabar Shield 4: 297  
 Anabasis (Xenophon) 3: 341 351  
 Anacreon 4: 7  
 Anahuac region 2: 101  
 Anamalai Hills 3: 107  
 Anambra 1: 169  
 Ananon David 1: 180  
 Anasazi people 2: 48  
 Anatolia 3: 2 58 59 65 66  
 Anatolian Peninsula 3: 12 56 57 59 4: 1 12  
 Anatolian Plateau 4: 3  
 Anawrahta king of Burma 3: 249  
 Anbar al 3: 38  
 ANC (African National Congress) (South Africa) 1: 300  
 Ancash 2: 258  
 Ancolun Mountain 2: 237 238  
 Ancón people 2: 237  
 Ancona 4: 19  
 Andalusia (Andalucía) 4: 1 90 95  
 Andalusian Plain 4: 89  
 Andaman Islands 3: 106 109  
 Andaman Sea 3: 300 310 (*see also* Indian Ocean)  
 Andean America 2: 4 237 264  
 Andean civilization 2: 82 (*see also* Inca civilization)  
 Andean Integration System 2: 84  
 Andersen Hans Christian 4: 125 146  
 Andes Mountains 2: 2 3 1 6 82 84 85 309  
 Andes Mountains Argentinian 2: 290 291  
 Andes Mountains Bolivian 2: 238 247 243  
 Andes Mountains Chilean 2: 289  
 Andes Mountains Colombian 2: 248  
 Andes Mountains Ecuadorian 2: 252 253 263  
 Andes Mountains Peruvian 2: 256 257  
 Andes Mountains Venezuelan 2: 204 205 206 211  
 Andhra Pradesh 3: 109  
 Andino Tiburcio Canas 2: 98  
 Andizhan 4: 317  
 Andorra 4: 1 58 59  
 Andorra la Vella (Andorra la Vieja) 4: 1 59  
 Andruic Mario de 1: 277 2: 199  
 Andre Felix National Park 1: 211  
 Andra Datta 4: 29  
 Andrae Laurentius 4: 144  
 Andrae Salomon 5: 90  
 Andros Island 2: 143 144  
 Anecho (Anecho) 1: 179  
 Anegada Island 2: 337  
 Anegada Passage 2: 141 337  
 Aneto Pico de 4: 89  
 Ang Duong 3: 253  
 Angara region 4: 302  
 Angarsk 4: 300  
 Angell Hills 2: 205 206  
 Angkor 4: 26 29 235  
 Angkor 3: 252 253 256  
 Angkor Wat (temple complex) 3: 253 268  
 Angles 4: 8 72 76 125  
 Anglescu Isle of 4: 57 71  
 Anglia 4: 75  
 Anglican Church 2: 17 115 4: 7  
 Anglo-Afghan wars 3: 16  
 Anglo-Burmese War 1: 99

- Apollonia 4: 235  
 Appalachian Mountains 2: 1 2, 24, 26, 28 37  
 Appalachian region 2: 24 25 34, 37  
 Appellus, Mario 1: 154 161 170, 2: 93 106  
 Appenzell Auser-Rhoden 4: 202  
 Appenzell Inner Rhoden 4: 202  
 Apra 5: 40  
 APRA (Alianza Popular Revolucionaria Americana) Party [Peru] 2: 262  
 Apscheron Peninsula 4: 267  
 Apuane Alps 4: 19  
 Apulia 4: 21 22  
 Apure River 2: 205  
 Apure (state, Venezuela) 2: 207  
 Apurimac 2: 258  
 Aquaba 3: 28, 29 30  
 Aquila Pass 2: 211  
 Aquino, Benigno S. 3: 299  
 Aquino, Corazon 3: 297 299  
 Aquitaine 4: 66  
 Aquitaine Basin 4: 64  
 Ar Ramadi 3: 17  
 Arab countries 3: 5 6 (*see also* Near and Middle East)  
 Arab League 1: 30 3: 22 30 56 5: 159  
 Arab people 1: 4 7 9 12 15 17 20 22 24 27 29 32 34 63 70 76 78 107 111 115 144 172 211 225 226 227 336 280 284 336 3: 12 18 23 24 25 27 37 38 41 42 43 44 46 47 48 49 55 58 298 301 347 4: 8 17 20 25 28 85 93 86 267 290 314  
 Arabia (*see* Bahrain Kuwait Oman Qatar Saudi Arabia United Arab Emirates Yemen)  
 Arabia Deserta 3: 11 18  
 Arabia Felix 3: 11 18 67  
 Arabia Petraea 3: 18  
 Arabian Desert (*see* Eastern Desert)  
 Arabian Peninsula 1: 113 3: 2 11 17 21 60 61 65 351  
 Arabian Plateau 3: 11  
 Arabian Sea 3: 111 131  
 Arad 4: 250 252  
 Aradina Sea 5: 7  
 Aragon 4: 90  
 Aragon Plain 4: 89  
 Aragna 2: 707  
 Arapahoe Tlacantins Basin 2: 192 193  
 Arak 3: 35  
 Arakan 3: 247  
 Arakan Yoma Range 3: 246  
 Arakao dunes 1: 79  
 Araks River 4: 285  
 Aral Desert 4: 283  
 Aral Sea 3: 6 4: 291  
 Arambourg, Camille 5: 117  
 Ararat Mount 3: 57 4: 313  
 Aras River 3: 31  
 Arauca 2: 250  
 Arauca River 2: 205  
 Araucan people 2: 243 244 246  
 Araucania 2: 244  
 Aravalli Range 3: 107  
 Arava people 5: 27  
 Arawak people 2: 141, 148 154 157 158 161 162 167 200 203 207 209 211  
 Arba rukun Mosque 1: 116  
 Arbenz, Jacobo 2: 95 98  
 Arctic 5: 85 91 99  
 Arctic Archipelago 2: 15  
 Arctic Circle 5: 85  
 Arctic Ocean 2: 13 3: 1 2 5: 85 86 87 89 99  
 Arctic tundra 3: 5  
 Ardennes Mountains 4: 60 57  
 Ardennes Plateau 4: 60 64  
 Ardour of Arica 4: 25  
 ARI NA Party (El Salvador) 2: 92  
 Arenal Lake 2: 88  
 Arequipa 2: 258 260  
 Arevalo, Juan José 2: 95  
 Arevalo, Vinicio Cerezo 2: 95  
 Argead dynasty 4: 248  
 Argentina 2: 4 6 7 8, 81 82 83 84 289 290 299 309 310 5: 95 96 97  
 Arges River 4: 250  
 Argolis, Gulf of 4: 32  
 Arguedas, Alcides 2: 241  
 Arguedas, José María 2: 262  
 Arguin Bay National Park 1: 70  
 Arguin River 3: 171  
 Argyll Lake 5: 43 44  
 Arihangay 3: 203  
 Århus 4: 124  
 Atlas, Arnulfo 2: 114  
 Atlas Sanchez, Oscar 2: 89  
 Atica 2: 243 246  
 Atima 2: 167  
 Aristotle 4: 7  
 Arizona 2: 29 31 35 37 41 45 106  
 Arkansas 2: 31  
 Arkam, Djebel 1: 22  
 Arkhangelsk 4: 299  
 Arlington 2: 48  
 Arlington National Cemetery 2: 18  
 Arlit 1: 73  
 Arly National Park 1: 147  
 Armagnac 4: 67  
 Armah, Ayi Kwei 1: 159  
 Armenia 4: 4 285 286 313  
 Armenia, Lesser 3: 59  
 Armenian highlands 3: 57  
 Armenian people 3: 12 25 45 55 60 4: 238 287  
 Armonian massif 4: 2 64  
 Arno River 4: 32  
 Arno Valley 4: 20  
 Aroutet, François Marie (Vulture) 4: 9 304  
 Arpad dynasty 4: 256  
 Arrian Island 4: 71  
 Arreso River 4: 123  
 Art Deco 2: 43  
 Art Nouveau 4: 63 176  
 Artaxerxes 3: 343  
 Artibonite 1 (department Haiti) 2: 167  
 Artibonite River 2: 161  
 Artibonite Valley 2: 161  
 Artigas 2: 306  
 Artigas, José 2: 306 308  
 Art Islands 3: 300  
 Aruba 2: 208 339  
 Armachal Pradesh 3: 5 109  
 Arusha 1: 235  
 Arussi 1: 109 110  
 Arwanti River 1: 241  
 Ayca Chakrisartun 3: 129  
 Aryan languages 3: 99 100 130  
 Aryan people (*see* Indo Aryan people)  
 Ayranah 1: 33  
 Azambuya 4: 86  
 Azaw 1: 14 15  
 As Sabiriyah 3: 45  
 As Salimiyah 3: 45  
 As Sidr 1: 24  
 As Sulaymaniyah 3: 38  
 As Suwayda 3: 54 55  
 Asagay National Park 1: 151  
 Asale Lake 1: 117  
 Ascension Island 1: 336  
 Asebi 1: 106 107 111  
 Asebi salt pan 1: 118  
 Asen, Ivan 4: 241  
 Asen, Peter 4: 241  
 Ash Shariyah 3: 26 27 28  
 Ashanti kingdom 1: 153 157 159  
 Ashanti language 2: 157  
 Ashanti people 1: 157 157 159 179  
 Ashanti region 1: 156 15  
 Ashkhabad 4: 4 307  
 Ashmore Island 3: 339  
 Ashmun, Jehudi 1: 18  
 Asia 1: 1 352 2: 3 13 4: 1 10 5: 85 171  
 Asia, Australian possessions in 3: 6 339  
 Asia, British possessions in 3: 6 339 340  
 Asia, Egyptian possessions in 3: 6 340  
 Asia, Far East 2: 1 3: 167 212  
 Asia, Indian region 3: 99 134  
 Asia, Indochina 3: 245 368  
 Asia, Malay Archipelago 3: 293 314  
 Asia, Near and Middle East 3: 7 9 11 66  
 Asia, Portuguese possessions in 1: 5 337 3: 6 340  
 Asia Minor 3: 2 59 60 4: 1  
 Asian people 1: 232 5: 3 (*see also* Mongoloid peoples)  
 Asn 3: 19  
 Asir, Ras 1: 105 114  
 Asu Highlands 3: 18  
 Asmara 1: 5 106 107 117 118  
 Asoka 3: 115 123  
 Aspalathos 4: 257  
 Asaba 1: 70  
 Assad, Hafez al 3: 56  
 Assad, Lale 3: 54  
 Assad, Lale 1: 113  
 Assam 3: 109 112 249  
 Assam Highlands 3: 107 108  
 Assekient Mount 1: 11  
 Assembly of the Province of Quebec 2: 16  
 Assiniboine Mount 2: 46  
 Assisi 3: 8 26 38 39 43 48 55  
 Astrakhan 4: 299  
 Astrakhan khmal 3: 9  
 Asturias 4: 90  
 Asturias, Miguel Angel 2: 95  
 Asuka period 3: 198  
 Asunción (city, Paraguay) 2: 300 301 302 309 310  
 Asunción (department, Paraguay) 2: 307  
 Aswa River 1: 237  
 Aswan 1: 17 18 19 20 35  
 Aswan Dam 1: 18 19 21 75  
 Aswat 1: 18  
 Atacama 2: 244 246 263  
 Atacama, Pina de 2: 290  
 Atacama Desert 2: 82 237 243 263  
 Atacama, French 2: 237  
 Atahualpa 2: 261  
 Atakota 1: 145  
 Atakota Mountains 1: 144 145 179  
 Atakpame 1: 150  
 Atar 1: 69 70  
 Atatürk, Mustafa Kemal 3: 58 60  
 Atbani 1: 76  
 Athabasca River 1: 75 77 106 108  
 Atesine Alps 4: 18  
 Athabasca Lake 2: 19  
 Athapaskan people 2: 21  
 Athens 4: 1 7 14 16 37  
 Athos, Mount 4: 1  
 Atitlan River 2: 93  
 Atitlan 2: 27 31 40  
 Atlantic Charter 2: 43  
 Atlantic Ocean 1: 149 151 176 276 293 294 296 2: 14 17 85 111 113 115 120 141 263 4: 1 3 133 5: 89 131 115  
 Atlantico 2: 250  
 Atlántida 2: 97  
 Atlantique 1: 145  
 Atlas Mountains 1: 2 3 10 11 26 27 31 35 36  
 Atak River 3: 31  
 Atuto River 2: 248 249  
 Attapu 3: 255  
 Atlas, Abu Bakr al 3: 63  
 Attica 1: 16 32  
 Ausberg (mountain range) 1: 293  
 Auckland 5: 21 25 27  
 Auden, W. H. 4: 8  
 Audiencia de los Confines 2: 95 110  
 Audiencia de Santo Domingo 2: 209  
 Audiencia of Quito 2: 255  
 Audubon, James 2: 46  
 Augrabies National Park 1: 309  
 Augsburg (Augusta) 4: 8  
 Augsburg, Peace of 4: 186  
 Augustus, Tomb of 4: 32  
 Augusta (Augsburg) 4: 8  
 Augustus 4: 8 62  
 Auki 5: 31  
 Aung San 3: 250  
 Aung San Suu Kyi, Daw 3: 250  
 Aua Poku 1: 153  
 Aura River 4: 128  
 Aures Mountains 1: 11 12  
 Anriol, Vincent 4: 70  
 Anrlandsjord 4: 145  
 Aurora borealis 5: 173  
 Auschwitz concentration camp 4: 206  
 Anse River 4: 64  
 Ausonian people 4: 24  
 Anst, Agden 4: 138  
 Austen, Jane 4: 78  
 Austrial Islands 5: 40  
 Australia 5: 1 2 3 4 6 7 17 30 41 42 43 44 96 97 129 141  
 Australia, possessions in Asia 3: 6 339  
 Australia, possessions in Oceania 5: 4 38  
 Australia, South 5: 11 13 16  
 Australia, Western 5: 10 11 13 14 16  
 Australian Alps 5: 7 8  
 Australian Capital Territory 5: 11  
 Australian Commonwealth 5: 10  
 Australian Labor Party 5: 16  
 Australian people 1: 284 5: 5  
 Australoid people 3: 304 5: 40 151  
 Austro-Malayan peoples 5: 9 10  
*Australopithecus africanus* 5: 148 151  
 Austria 4: 9 10 12 26 27 83 125 171 172 173 176 186 190 205 206 246 5: 97  
 Austrian Succession War of 4: 26 186  
 Austro-Asiatic languages 3: 100  
 Austro-Asiatic people 3: 114 245  
 Austro-Hungarian Empire 4: 174 176 236 241 247 257  
 Austro-Prussian War 4: 176  
 Austronesia 3: 293  
 Austurland 4: 132  
 Auvaigne 4: 66  
 Auyan Tepuy 2: 206  
 Ava 3: 248 249  
 Avat people 4: 17 175 179 256 296 309  
 Avarua 5: 40  
 Avandea 9 de Julio 2: 310  
 Averroes 1: 30  
 Aves, Atoll 2: 208  
 Avazzano 4: 19  
 Avignon 4: 26  
 Avila, Mount 2: 212  
 Aviz dynasty 4: 87  
 Avril, Prosper 2: 162  
 Awami League 3: 104  
 Awasa Lake 1: 117  
 Awasa National Park 1: 118  
 Awash River 1: 108 110 112 113 118  
 Awiso 1: 158  
 Awlani 1: 23 24  
 Axel Heiberg Island 5: 58  
 Ayon 1: 156  
 Ayos River 4: 15  
 Ayos Powers 4: 10  
 Ayum kingdom (*see* Akum kingdom)  
 Ayacucho 2: 258  
 Ayacucho, Battle of 2: 210  
 Ayis 3: 351  
 Ayeyar Rock 5: 8 11  
 Ayeyawady River (*see* Irrawaddy River)  
 Aylwin, Patricio 2: 245 247  
 Aymará 2: 263  
 Aymara language 2: 258  
 Aymara people 2: 239  
 Ayodhya dynasty 3: 124  
 Ayolas, Juan de 2: 310  
 Ayutthaya 3: 256 259, 260  
 Ayub Khan 3: 127  
 Ayvubids 1: 20  
 Az, Zahawi 3: 40  
 Az Zawiyah 1: 23  
 Azerbaijan Respublikasy (*see* Azerbaijan)  
 Azcona, José Simon 2: 98  
 Azd people 3: 50  
 Azerbaijan 3: 7, 32 33 36 4: 4 286 287  
 Azeri people 4: 287 290  
 Azeri Turkish language 3: 32  
 Azikiwe, Nnamdi 1: 172  
 Azilal 1: 28  
 Azirali 1: 23  
 Azores 4: 84 85, 86  
 Azov, Sea of 4: 310  
 Aztec civilization 2: 3, 6 82 83 85 105 116  
 Azua 2: 153 154  
 Azuay 2: 254  
 Azuéli, Mariano 2: 107  
 Azuero Peninsula 2: 112  
 B  
 Ba (Lijiji) 5: 18  
 Ba, Oman 1: 176  
 Baalbek 3: 66  
 Bab al Mandab 1: 107 112 113  
 Baba, Rahman 3: 16  
 Babahoyo River 2: 253  
 Babaguida, Ibrahim 1: 172  
 Babenberg dynasty 4: 175  
 Babia, Cora 4: 194  
 Babil 3: 38  
 Babinja people 1: 217 219 221  
 Babin 3: 15 116  
 Babylon 3: 348  
 Babylonia 3: 65 66 343 5: 129 130 (*see also* Iraq)  
 Babylonians 3: 8 39 43 48  
 Bac Bo 3: 245 261 262 264  
 Bac Son people 3: 265  
 Bac Thar 3: 263  
 Bacan 4: 250  
 Bacán/Uctca Noua 4: 251  
 Baccanum, Mario 3: 56  
 Back Bay 2: 25  
 Bacon, Francis 4: 78  
 Bacs, Kiskim 4: 253  
 Bactria 3: 8 16 127 4: 317, 314  
 Badkhash 3: 14  
 Badla, Mount 1: 117  
 Baden Württemberg 4: 171 182  
 Badghis 3: 14  
 Badmuth Peaks 3: 107  
 Badshahi Mosque (Lahore) 3: 132  
 Baetic Cordillera 4: 89  
 Bactica 4: 93  
 Batata 1: 163 164  
 Baffin, William 5: 89  
 Baffin Bay 2: 13 5: 88  
 Baffin Island 2: 11 15 21 5: 85  
 Baffin National Park 2: 15  
 Batoulabe 1: 67  
 Batoussam 1: 212  
 Bafum people 1: 71  
 Bagu people 1: 161  
 Baghdad 3: 6 8 21 46 37 38 39 50 55 64  
 Baghlan 3: 14  
 Bagmati 3: 122  
 Bagmati 4: 27  
 Bago 3: 247 248  
 Bagmati, Gdynia 4: 286  
 Bagdad 3: 296  
 Bagurum kingdom 1: 64  
 Baha 3: 19  
 Bahamas 2: 4 55 143 144 169 176



- Bahar Mirza Taq Khan 3: 36  
 Bahariya oasis 1: 18, 19  
 Bahia 2: 191, 192, 193, 194, 195, 196, 198, 212  
 Bahia, Islas de la 2: 97  
 Bahia Blanca 2: 294  
 Bahoruco 2: 154  
 Bahoruco, Sierra de 2: 153, 155  
 Bahr Hermann 4: 176  
 Bahr el Ghazal 1: 62, 75, 76  
 Bahr Kéna 1: 62  
 Bahr Salamat 1: 62  
 Bahuan 3: 6, 22, 24, 52, 347  
 Bahusevic, Francisak 4: 289  
 Bahutu people 1: 209, 210, 228, 229  
 Bata do Bango 1: 275  
 Bata dos Tigres 1: 275  
 Bate de Corisco 1: 221  
 Batak Lake 3: 3, 7, 4: 297, 313  
 Batak region 4: 302  
 Batriki 5: 19, 20  
 Bata 4: 85  
 Baja California Norte 2: 107  
 Baja California Peninsula 2: 82, 99, 100, 101, 115  
 Baja California Sur 2: 102  
 Baja Verapaz 2: 94  
 Bakam 1: 155  
 Baker Plan 2: 245  
 Bakhtaran 3: 33  
 Bakhtiar people 3: 32  
 Baklimd Mountain 2: 202  
 Bakoko people 1: 212  
 Bakol 1: 115  
 Bakongo people 1: 217, 248  
 Bakony Forest 4: 255  
 Bakota people 1: 217, 219, 220  
 Bakoma 1: 215  
 Bakr, Ahmad Hasan al. 3: 40  
 Baku 4: 4, 286, 287, 314  
 Bakwele people 1: 220  
 Balaguer, Joaquín 2: 156  
 Balakovo (Bolgara) 3: 351  
 Balambangan Island 3: 306  
 Balante people 1: 149, 163  
 Balaton Lake 4: 2, 253, 255  
 Balboa 2: 115  
 Balboa, Vasco Núñez de 2: 113, 5: 5  
 Baldwin, James 2: 44  
 Bale 1: 109, 110  
 Balearic Islands 4: 90  
 Ballon Declaration 3: 44  
 Bali 3: 300, 301, 302, 304, 314  
 Balkan Mountains 4: 238, 240, 245  
 Balkan Peninsula 4: 12  
 Balkan wars 4: 17, 241  
 Balkan Danube region 4: 4, 6, 9, 10, 241, 258  
 Balikh 3: 14  
 Balkhash Lake 3: 3, 4, 291  
 Ballarat 5: 13, 14  
 Ballon de Crutzwiler 4: 64  
 Baloch people 3: 175  
 Balqa 3: 28  
 Balsas River 2: 100  
 Baltic people 4: 189, 303  
 Baltic region 4: 4, 10, 121, 122, 126, 127, 134, 136, 145, 146, 171  
 Baltic Sea 4: 126, 136, 283, 297  
 Baltic Shield 4: 2, 177, 128, 141  
 Baltimore 2: 29, 33  
 Baluchi language 3: 37  
 Baluchi people 3: 14, 15  
 Baluchistan 3: 33, 124, 125, 345  
 Balzan Luigi 2: 240  
 Balzi Rossi caves 5: 174  
 Bani 1: 147  
 Bamako 1: 5, 65, 66, 67, 68, 80  
 Bamangwato people 1: 279  
 Bambara people 1: 66, 68  
 Bambari 1: 214, 215  
 Bambouk Plain 1: 66  
 Bamenda 1: 212  
 Bamian 3: 14  
 BaMileke people 1: 211  
 Bamingui 1: 215  
 Baniungui-Bangoran National Park 1: 214  
 BaMum people 1: 211, 213  
 Ban Phônhiou 3: 255  
 Banaba 5: 19  
 Banat 4: 251  
 Banat Plain 4: 249  
 Banco National Park 1: 151  
 Banda, Hastings Kamuzu 1: 288  
 Banda people 1: 214  
 Banda Sea 3: 300  
 Bandama River 1: 151, 153  
 Bandar Abbas 3: 32  
 Bandar Seri Begawan 3: 6, 291, 295  
 Bandaranaike, S. W. R. D. 3: 130  
 Bandaranaike, Sirimavo 3: 130  
 Baidiera, Pico da 2: 188  
 Bandos 3: 120  
 Bandundu 1: 243  
 Bandung 3: 302  
 Bandung Conference 3: 10  
 Banfi National Park 2: 15, 45  
 Banfora 1: 147  
 Banfora massif 1: 146  
 Bang Chali 3: 260  
 Banga people 3: 103  
 Bangalore 3: 109  
 Bangassou 1: 215  
 Banggai Islands 3: 306  
 Bangka Island 3: 300  
 Bangkok 3: 6, 257, 258, 259, 260, 267, 268  
 Bangkok Bay of 3: 257, 259  
 Bangladesh 3: 6, 99, 100, 101, 104, 176, 127  
 Bango, Bata do 1: 275  
 Bangoran 1: 215  
 Bangui 1: 5, 214, 215, 248  
 Bangweulu Lake 1: 307, 303  
 Banlung National Park 1: 291  
 Banu River 1: 67  
 Banjar Luka 4: 246  
 Banjar 1: 5, 154, 155  
 Bank of Amsterdam 2: 339  
 Banks Island 5: 36, 37, 85, 88, 89  
 Banska Bystrica 4: 198  
 Bantu kingdoms 1: 212, 213, 276, 301, 310  
 Bantu language 1: 244, 280  
 Bantu peoples 1: 5, 161, 169, 207, 209, 211, 212, 214, 217, 218, 219, 221, 224, 226, 228, 244, 245, 238, 247, 245, 248, 275, 278, 279, 282, 287, 291, 292, 293, 294, 297, 298, 299, 301, 303, 306, 308, 310  
 Bantustans 1: 297  
 Banu Matruh dynasty 1: 75  
 Banzu people 1: 215  
 Bao Dai 3: 766  
 Baol 1: 175  
 Baoule National Park 1: 66  
 Bai 4: 246  
 Baiaoa massif 2: 147  
 Barahona 2: 154  
 Baraka River 1: 106  
 Baranaukas, Antanas 4: 136  
 Baranya 4: 254  
 Baratteri, General 1: 112  
 Barbacoa 2: 208  
 Barbados 2: 4, 145, 146  
 Barbatossa 1: 15  
 Barbuda 2: 142  
 Barcelona 4: 32, 89, 90  
 Barco, Virgilio 2: 252  
 Barents, Willem 5: 87, 89  
 Barents Island 5: 87  
 Barents Sea 4: 137, 283, 5: 85, 87  
 Bari 1: 115, 4: 19, 21  
 Barima-Waimi 2: 200  
 Barinas 2: 208  
 Baringo, Lake 1: 224  
 Barinzu 2: 207  
 Barisan Mountains 3: 300, 301  
 Barisan Socialist Party (Singapore) 3: 312  
 Barito River 3: 301  
 Barlovento 2: 237  
 Baros 3: 120  
 Barotse people 1: 304  
 Barotseland region 1: 302  
 Barqah Plateau 1: 21  
 Barquisimeto 3: 248  
 Barriancuilla 2: 248, 251  
 Barreda, Gabino 2: 106  
 Barreiro 4: 86  
 Barrientos, Ortuño, René 2: 241  
 Barrios, Justo Rufino 2: 95  
 Barros, João de 2: 197  
 Barth, Heinrich 1: 148  
 Bartoli, Daniello 3: 170  
 Bartolomeo Island 2: 263  
 Bartolomeo, Carlo 4: 314  
 Baru (volcano) 2: 112  
 Baruni, Suleiman al. 1: 25  
 Bas Zane 1: 241, 243, 244  
 Basel 4: 202  
 Basel Treaty of 4: 204  
 Basel I and 4: 202  
 Basel Stadt 4: 202  
 Bashir, Oman Hassan el. 1: 78  
 Bashkir people 4: 297  
 Bashkiriya 4: 299  
 Bashmaki movement 4: 306  
 Basil II, ruler of Eastern Roman Empire 4: 241  
 Basilicata 4: 21  
 Basist people 3: 307  
 Basotho people 1: 282, 297  
 Basque independence movement (11A) 4: 94  
 Basque people 4: 91  
 Basque provinces 4: 90, 92  
 Basra 3: 37, 38, 39  
 Bass Strait 5: 8  
 Bassa people 1: 166, 212  
 Bassam 1: 153  
 Bassar 1: 180  
 Bassas da India Island 1: 336  
 Bassas da Europa Island 1: 336  
 Bassas da Juan de Nova 1: 336  
 Basse Casamance region 1: 174, 175, 181  
 Bassem 3: 248, 249  
 Basse, Kotto 1: 215  
 Basse, Normandie (lower Normandy) 4: 66  
 Basseterre (St. Kitts) 2: 164  
 Basse, Terre Island (Guadeloupe) 2: 348  
 Bastan Plateau 3: 107, 108  
 Bastidas, Rodrigo de 2: 113  
 Bastide, Roger 2: 193, 194  
 Bastille 4: 9  
 Basuto highland 1: 296, 297  
 Basutoland 1: 282  
 Bat Yam 3: 42  
 Bata 1: 221, 222  
 Batak people 3: 301  
 Batangas 3: 298  
 Batavia 3: 302, 304  
 Batavian people 4: 189  
 Batavian Republic 4: 191  
 BaTeke people 1: 217, 218  
 Bateke uplands 1: 216  
 BaTh Party 3: 38, 40, 56  
 Batha 1: 63  
 Batha River 1: 62  
 Bathsheba 2: 145  
 Bathurst (Australia) 5: 13, 14  
 Bathurst (Bangui) 1: 154, 155  
 Bathurst Island 5: 88  
 Batu Anadolu 3: 58  
 Battnah 3: 49, 50  
 Batista, Fulgencio 2: 150, 151, 169  
 Batlle y Ordóñez, José 2: 308  
 Batna 1: 13  
 Battambang 3: 251  
 Batticaloa 3: 140  
 Battumi 4: 290  
 BaTutsi people 1: 209, 210, 228, 229, 248  
 BaTwa people 1: 209, 228, 229  
 Bauchi 1: 169  
 Bauchi Mountains 1: 168, 170  
 Banchi Plateau 1: 168, 169, 171  
 Baudó, Serranía de 2: 248, 249  
 Baudouin I, king of Belgium 4: 63  
 Baule people 1: 152, 153  
 Bavaria 4: 171, 181, 182, 205  
 Bavarian Forest 4: 180, 181  
 Bavarian Plateau 4: 180  
 BaVili people 1: 218  
 Bavnehøj, Fjer 4: 123  
 Bawdwin Namtu 3: 248  
 Bay (Somalia) 1: 115  
 Bay Bridge 2: 47  
 Bay of Pigs invasion 2: 151  
 Bay of Plenty region 5: 25  
 Bava people 1: 214  
 Bayadh, El 1: 13  
 Bayamon 2: 340  
 Bayan Olgyi 3: 203  
 Bayanhongor 3: 203  
 Bayano River 2: 112  
 Bayda, Al (Yemen) 3: 61  
 Bayda, Al (Libya) 1: 23  
 Bayerische Staatsbibliothek 4: 206  
 Bayern (see Bavaria)  
 Baymaung 3: 249  
 Bayon, Buddhist temple complex 3: 253  
 Bazega 1: 147  
 BDP (Botswana Democratic Party) 1: 279  
 Beacon Hill 2: 25  
 Beagle Channel 2: 309  
 Bear Island 5: 87  
 Beas River 3: 107  
 Beatrix, queen of the Netherlands 4: 192  
 Bean Bassin/Rose Hill 1: 289  
 Beantfort Sea 2: 13, 5: 85, 86, 88  
 Beaver, Bruce 5: 17  
 Beaver Cay 5: 8  
 Bebel, August 4: 186  
 Bebevi, Francis 1: 213  
 Bechtel 1: 11, 13  
 Bechuana people 1: 278, 297  
 Bechuanaland 1: 279  
 Bedford, Struyvesant 2: 29  
 Bedonnis 1: 71, 3: 20, 21, 22, 61, 64  
 Bel Island 2: 337  
 Bel, Shiva 3: 42  
 Beerenberg (mountain) 5: 87  
 Beethoven, Ludwig van 4: 10, 186  
 Belg, Jan 4: 292  
 Belg, Karay 4: 292  
 Begemdir region 1: 118  
 Begia people 1: 111  
 Behena 1: 18  
 Berjme 3: 6, 169, 171, 172, 173, 174, 176, 180, 181, 182, 204, 210, 319, 351  
 Beijing Opera 3: 212  
 Belia 1: 291, 292  
 Belint 3: 6, 36, 37, 48, 63, 65  
 Beja 1: 32, 33  
 Beja people 1: 76  
 Bejra 1: 13, 14  
 Bekaa Valley 3: 47  
 Beke people 1: 152  
 Bekes 4: 254  
 Bela III, king of Hungary 4: 256  
 Belat 3: 294  
 Belarus (Belaruskaya Respublika) 4: 4, 171, 283, 288, 289  
 Belarussian people 4: 126, 134, 284, 297  
 Belawan 3: 304  
 Belem 2: 189, 191  
 Belen, Cuchilla de 2: 305  
 Belene 4: 240  
 Belén, Joaquín 2: 114  
 Belep Archipelago 5: 39  
 Belfast 4: 72, 73, 95  
 Bellast Bay 4: 72  
 Belgian Congo 1: 246 (see also Congo, Zaire)  
 Belgians 1: 242, 244, 245, 246  
 Belgium 4: 4, 5, 6, 10, 27, 58, 60, 63, 96, 190, 5: 97  
 Belgrade 4: 4, 244, 245, 246, 258  
 Belgrave, James H. D. 3: 24  
 Belice Valley 4: 19  
 Bélier 1: 153  
 Belitung Island 3: 300  
 Belize (country) 2: 4, 81, 86-87, 96-98, 115, 3: 447  
 Belize (district) 2: 86  
 Belize City 2: 86, 87  
 Belize River 2: 86  
 Bellingshausen, Fabien Gottheb von 5: 94  
 Bellmann, Karl Mikael 4: 144  
 Bello, Andrés 2: 210  
 Belluno 4: 22  
 Belmopan 2: 86, 87  
 Belo Horizonte 2: 191  
 Beloch, K. J. 4: 15  
 Belograd 4: 299  
 Bemolanga 1: 285  
 Ben Ali, General 1: 34  
 Ben Bella, Mohammed 1: 16  
 Ben Jelloun, Tahar 1: 30  
 Ben Misk, Sidi Othmane 1: 28  
 Ben Slimane 1: 28  
 Ben Tre 3: 263  
 Bendur 1: 8, 115  
 Bendur Plan 1: 105, 114  
 Benares 3: 131, 134  
 Benavides, Oscar 2: 262  
 Benbow, Mount 5: 36  
 Benelux Economic Union 4: 62, 83, 191  
 Benes, Edvard 4: 179  
 Bengal 3: 101, 103, 104, 109, 113, 117, 132, 134 (see also Bangladesh, India, Pakistan)  
 Bengal Bay of 3: 2, 107, 111, 246  
 Bengali language 3: 103  
 Bengali people 3: 102  
 Benghazi 1: 22, 23, 74, 25  
 Bengkulu 3: 307  
 Bengo 1: 276  
 Benguela 1: 276  
 Benguela Current 1: 217, 273, 275, 276, 294, 294, 296  
 Beni 2: 239  
 Beni Mellal 1: 28  
 Beni River 2: 248  
 Beni Suici 1: 18  
 Benin 1: 5, 44, 46, 144, 146, 172, 182  
 Benin, Bright of 1: 168  
 Benin, Kingdom of 1: 146, 172, 182  
 Benjadd, Chadi 1: 16  
 Benjamin, Walthier 4: 186  
 Benoué 1: 212  
 Benoni National Park 1: 211  
 Benoni River 1: 211, 212  
 Benso, Camillo conte di Cavour 4: 76  
 Benne 1: 169  
 Benne River 1: 144, 168  
 Benbu people 1: 4, 7, 9, 12, 15, 17, 22, 27, 29, 30, 32, 34, 36, 64, 70, 71, 80, 144, 158, 175, 181  
 Berbera 1: 115, 116  
 Berberati 1: 214, 215  
 Berbuic Depression 2: 200  
 Berea 1: 282  
 Bergama 3: 343  
 Bergamo 4: 20, 21  
 Bergen 4: 137, 138, 139, 146  
 Bergisches Land 4: 184  
 Bergman, Ingmar 4: 144  
 Bergomul people 4: 232  
 Berong, Vitus 5: 89  
 Berong Strait 2: 3, 6, 15, 26, 46, 82, 3: 1, 7, 5: 89  
 Berkeley 2: 47  
 Berlin 4: 4, 171, 180, 181, 182, 187, 206  
 Berlin, Congress of 4: 235, 236, 246, 252  
 Berlin Wall 4: 10, 182, 187, 206, 305  
 Bermuda 2: 335-336  
 Bern 4: 4, 201, 202, 204  
 Bernina, Piz 4: 18, 201  
 Bernini, Gian 4: 26  
 Berytus 3: 48 (see also Beirut)  
 Beskid Mountains 4: 177, 193, 197  
 Bessarabia 4: 295, 296, 304  
 Bessus 3: 345  
 Betancourt, Rómulo 2: 207, 208, 210  
 Betancur, Belisario 2: 252  
 Bethanien 1: 294

- Bethlehem 3: 29 42 66  
 Béthune, Maximilien de 4: 69  
 Ben, Mongo 1: 213  
 Betpak Dala Plain 4: 291  
 Bette 1: 22  
 Bhadgaon 3: 122, 123  
*Bhagavadgita* 3: 114  
 Bharat (*see* India)  
 Bheri 3: 122  
 Bhutan 3: 6, 99 100, 104 106 123  
 Bhutto Benazir 3: 127  
 Bhutto Zulfikar Ali 3: 127  
 Bia Mount 3: 254  
 Bia River 1: 153, 156  
 Biafra 1: 169 172  
 Biafra, Bight of 1: 168 211  
 Biafra, Gulf of 1: 143  
 Biagi 1 no 2: 27 44  
 Biak Island 3: 300  
 Biala Podlaska 4: 194  
 Bialowieza Forest Park 4: 193  
 Bialystok 4: 194 195  
 Bianchi Gustavo 1: 109  
 Biakouma 1: 152  
 Bibi Khanom Mosque of 4: 312  
 Biblis 4: 206  
 Bicol 3: 297  
 Bie 1: 276  
 Bie Plateau 1: 275  
 Biella 4: 23  
 Bielsko 4: 194  
 Big Bend (Swaziland) 1: 301  
 Bighorn Mountains 2: 25  
 Bihar 3: 109 113 123  
 Bihari people 3: 102  
 Bihou 4: 250  
 Bijagos Islands 1: 163  
 Bikini Atoll 5: 21  
 Bilbao 4: 90  
 Bilo Gora Highlands 4: 242  
 Biloslavo Lausto 3: 16  
 Biltmoe 1: 63  
 Bin Arus 1: 33  
 Binga Mount 1: 291  
 Binger Louis Gustave 1: 148  
 Bingu (Uganda) 1: 238  
 Binh Tri Thien 3: 263  
 Bio Bio 2: 244 245 246  
 Bio Bio River 2: 243  
 Bioko Island 1: 221 222 230 337  
 Bombo 1: 164  
 Bonatagay 3: 172  
 Bond Island 2: 336  
 Brenda 3: 123  
 Brika 4: 144  
 Brinkenid 4: 72  
 Birmingham 4: 72 73 74 76  
 Bishan 1: 77  
 Biskkek 4: 4 293 294  
 Bishop Maurice 2: 160  
 Biskra 1: 11 12 13  
 Bislama language 5: 37  
 Bismarck Otto von 4: 10 186  
 Bismarck Archipelago 5: 28 30  
 Bismarck Mountains 5: 29  
 Bismarck Sea 5: 29  
 Bissau 1: 5 163 164 (*see also* Guinea Bissau)  
 Bistrița Năsăud 4: 250  
 Bitola 4: 248  
 Biwa ko Lake 3: 191  
 Biva Paul 1: 213  
 Bividi Alessandro 1: 213  
 Bizerte 1: 32 33  
 Björnsson Sveinn 4: 133  
 Björn Island 5: 87  
 Björnson Bjornstjerne 4: 157 140  
 Black Africa 1: 1, 76 143 144 171-172, 207, 335  
 Black Carb people 2: 141  
 Black Country 4: 73  
 Black Elk 2: 42  
 Black Forest 4: 180  
 Black people 2: 83 88 93 97 106 109 112 113, 143 145 148 150 152 154 157 158 159 161, 162 164 165 166, 167, 200 202 203, 207, 212 249, 254 338 (*see also* African-American people, Negroid peoples)  
 Black Plague 4: 65  
 Black River 2: 157  
 Black Sea 4: 1, 2, 231 238, 283 297  
 Black Sheep 4: 308  
 Black Volta River 1: 66 148 151 156, 157  
 Blackbeard's Castle 2: 340  
 Blackburne 2: 336  
 Blackfoot people 2: 15  
 Blagoevgrad 4: 239  
 Blanc Andre 4: 232  
 Blanc Mont 4: 18 64 5: 172  
 Blanco Fombona Rufino 2: 210  
 Blanquilla Island 2: 205  
 Blantyre 1: 287  
 Blekinge 4: 143  
 Blemmyes 1: 78  
 Bhida 1: 13  
 Bhig, William 5: 19  
 Blixen Karen (Isak Dinesen) 1: 225 226 227  
 Bloemfontein 1: 296 297 298  
 Bloody Sunday 4: 304  
 Blowing Point 2: 335  
 Blue Lagoon 2: 169  
 Blue Mosque (Istanbul) 3: 34  
 Blue Mountains (Australia) 5: 41  
 Blue Mountains (Jamaica) 2: 156 157  
 Blue Nile River 1: 17 75 77 80 108 110 117  
 Blue Ridge Mountains 2: 25  
 Bluefields 2: 108  
 Bo 1: 177  
 Bo Har Gull 3: 173  
 Boa Vista Island 1: 149  
 Boato 2: 109  
 Bocchi 1: 215  
 Bobo people 1: 66 147 148  
 Bobo Dioulasso 1: 147 148 152  
 Bocas del Toro 2: 112  
 Bockheim Luigi 4: 26  
 Bodele Basin 1: 62  
 Bodcunda del Medio 2: 169  
 Bodin Constantine 4: 246  
 Boeing 2: 37  
 Boers 1: 274 298 299 308  
 Bockmanland 1: 294  
 Boethuk people 2: 11  
 Boetia 4: 16 17  
 Boetius 4: 25  
 Boganda Barthelémy 1: 215 216  
 Bogdan 4: 296  
 Boggiani Guido 2: 301  
 Bogota 2: 164 217 218 250 251  
 Bogota Pitcair 2: 87  
 Bolcuna 4: 176 177 178 179 197 198  
 Bohemia Duchy of 4: 198  
 Bohemia Kingdom of 4: 179  
 Bohemian Basin 4: 178  
 Bohemian massif 4: 2 173  
 Bohoric Adam 4: 200  
 Bon people 4: 179  
 Boiling Lake 2: 151  
 Bojashiu Agnes Gonxha (Mother Theresa) 3: 132  
 Boke 1: 162  
 Boko 3: 255  
 Bolama (Bijagos) 1: 164  
 Bolama A R 1: 246  
 Bolama Island 1: 164  
 Boldesti 4: 251  
 Boleslav I prince of Bohemia 4: 179  
 Boleslaw I (the Brave) king of Poland 4: 195  
 Bolgata (Balakovo) 3: 351  
 Bolgatanga 1: 157  
 Bolikhamsay 3: 255  
 Bolívar (Colombia) 2: 250  
 Bolívar (Ecuador) 2: 254  
 Bolívar (Venezuela) 2: 207  
 Bolívar, Cero 2: 208  
 Bolívar, Pico 2: 205, 211  
 Bolívar, Simón 2: 8, 84, 210 212 251, 261  
 Bolivia 2: 4, 82, 84, 187, 237, 238 241 246, 263  
 Bolivia and Peru Confederation of 2: 84  
 Bologna 4: 19 21 23 24  
 Bolovens Plateau des 3: 254  
 Bolshevik Revolution 4: 10 311  
 Bolsheviks 4: 304 313  
 Bolshoi Ballet 4: 314  
 Bolzano 4: 19  
 Bombay 3: 106 109 111 113 114 132  
 Bomi 1: 166  
 Bomi Hills 1: 166 167  
 Bon Lemane 1: 28  
 Bonaberi 1: 212  
 Bonate 2: 339  
 Bonaparte (Mauritius) 1: 290  
 Bonaparte Charles Louis Napoleon 4: 67 191 252  
 Bonaparte Joseph 2: 298  
 Bonaparte Napoleon (*see* Napoleon I)  
 Bondoukou 1: 152  
 Bone (Annaba) 1: 13 14 15  
 Bone Robert W 5: 2  
 Bonete Mountain 2: 291  
 Bong 1: 166  
 Bong Mountains 1: 165 166 167  
 Bong Town 1: 166  
 Bongo Albert 1: 270  
 Bongos Mountains 1: 214  
 Boniface VIII pope 4: 13  
 Bonifacio Andres 3: 299  
 Bonin Islands 3: 190 5: 35  
 Bonny 1: 171  
 Bonzi Leonido 5: 90  
 Boothia Peninsula 5: 88  
 Bophuthatswana 1: 297  
 Boquion 2: 302  
 Boquerones River 2: 147  
 Bora Bora Island 5: 40  
 Borzhgrevink Carsten I 5: 94  
 Borkaux 4: 61 66 67  
 Borth Bou Atchidi 1: 13  
 Boreal Chaco 2: 300  
 Borges Jorge Luis 2: 298  
 Borghind 4: 146  
 Borgo Commo 4: 32  
 Borgo Maggiore 4: 30  
 Borgou (Benin) 1: 145  
 Borgia (Nigeria) 1: 169  
 Boris III king of Bulgaria 4: 241  
 Borkou region 1: 63  
 Borlange 4: 144  
 Boroko 3: 293 294 295 299 300 301 307 313 314 (*see also* Malaysia)  
 Bornholm 4: 174  
 Borno 1: 169  
 Borobudur Buddhist temple complex 3: 304 314  
 Borodino Battle of 4: 304  
 Boroto people 1: 211  
 Borotou 1: 153  
 Botticelli Francesco 4: 76  
 Borsai 4: 257  
 Borsod Abony Zemplen 4: 251  
 Bosch Johannes van den 3: 304  
 Bosman Charles 1: 300  
 Bosnia and Herzegovina 4: 4 176 232 236 237 247 258  
 Bosnian people 4: 236  
 Bosphorus Channel 3: 56 59  
 Bossangoa 1: 214  
 Boston 2: 4 25 32 33 39  
 Boston Tea Party 2: 41  
 Bosumtwi Lake 1: 156  
 Botero Giovanni 2: 7 4: 1  
 Botha Pieter W 1: 300  
 Bothnia Gulf of 4: 128 141  
 Boto Fra 1: 213  
 Botoşani 4: 250  
 Botrange Mount 4: 60  
 Botswana 1: 5 277 279  
 Botswana Democratic Party (BDP) 1: 279  
 Bottom The 2: 339  
 Bou Naceur Mount 1: 26  
 Bouafle 1: 152  
 Bouake 1: 151 152, 153  
 Bouai 1: 214 215  
 Bouba Ndjalah National Park 1: 211  
 Bouenza 1: 217  
 Bougainville Louis Antoine de 2: 294 305 306 5: 32 38 39 40  
 Bougainville Island 5: 28 30  
 Bougounba 1: 147  
 Boura 1: 13  
 Bourdoui 1: 28  
 Boukassa Jean Bedel 1: 216  
 Boukia 1: 29  
 Boulpou 1: 147  
 Boulkienide 1: 147  
 Boumaza Bechir 1: 16  
 Boumedienne Colonel 1: 16  
 Boumerdes 1: 13  
 Bonn Oum 3: 256  
 Bonna 1: 152  
 Boudiali 1: 152  
 Bouna 1: 148  
 Bourbon House of 4: 94  
 Bourbon Ile (*see* Reunion Island)  
 Bourgogne (Burgundy) 4: 66  
 Bourguiba Habib 1: 34  
 Bouvet Island 5: 91  
 Bow River 2: 45  
 Boxer Rebellion 3: 10 181  
 Boyaca 2: 250  
 Boyci Ahmad K. Kohluvech 3: 33  
 Boxoma Falls 1: 241 247  
 Brabant 4: 61 190  
 Bradford 4: 73 74  
 Brady Plan 2: 245  
 Braga 4: 85 86  
 Bragança House of 4: 87  
 Brahe Per 4: 130  
 Brahmani River 3: 108  
 Brahmaputra River 3: 3 99 101 102 103 106 107 170 209  
 Braila 4: 250 251 252  
 Brakna 1: 70  
 Brandaris Mount 2: 339  
 Brandberg (mountain) 1: 310  
 Brandenburg 4: 182  
 Brandenburger Gate 4: 206  
 Brandes George Morris 4: 140  
 Bransfield Edward 5: 94  
 Brasleno Scudo 2: 81  
 Brasilia 2: 188 189 191 199 212  
 Braso 4: 250  
 Bratislava 4: 3 19 198  
 Bratsk 4: 300  
 Brattfeld 5: 88 89  
 Brattel Leonard 2: 9 3 347 4 9  
 Brava 1: 116  
 Brava Island 1: 149  
 Braz 4: 251  
 Brazil 2: 1 2 4 6 7 8 81 82 84 86 187 198 199 211 212 241 5 97 168  
 Brazil Nordeste 2: 84  
 Brazil Sudeste 2: 84  
 Brazil United States of 2: 198  
 Brazilian Shield 2: 300  
 Brazza Pierre Savorgnan de 1: 218 220  
 Brazzaville 1: 5 216 217 218 248  
 Brecht Bertolt 4: 186 187  
 Breda Treaty of 2: 142 204  
 Bremen 4: 182 184  
 Brescia 4: 20 21  
 Breslau 4: 194 195  
 Bressani Francesco Guiseppe 2: 22  
 Brest (Belarus) 4: 288  
 Brest (France) 4: 64  
 Brest Litovsk Treaty of 4: 304  
 Bretagne 4: 66  
 Breugel Pieter 4: 191  
 Breitenbach Brevien 1: 300  
 Brezhnev, Leonid 4: 305  
 Briberi people 2: 88  
 Bridgetown 2: 145 146  
 Brikama 1: 155  
 Brindisi 4: 12, 21, 23  
 Brisbane 5: 7, 11, 12 14  
 Brisbane Bridge 5: 43  
 Bristol 4: 74 76  
 Bristol Channel 4: 72  
 Britain (*see* England, Great Britain, Ireland)  
 British Bechuanaaland 1: 279  
 British Cameroon 1: 172 213  
 British Columbia 2: 15 17, 19 23 45, 120  
 British Commonwealth of Nations 2: 23, 143 146 160 164 166 167 201 335 337 4: 76 78  
 British East India Company 3: 9 104 117, 310 312  
 British Guiana (*see* Guyana)  
 British Honduras (*see* Belize (country))  
 British Isles 4: 2 57 58 (*see also* Great Britain, Ireland)  
 British North America Act (Great Britain) 2: 23  
 British North Borneo Company 3: 295  
 British people 1: 78 172 178 232 236 239 285 286, 289 290 299 301 304 308 3: 9 26 28 40 41 100 104 109 111 117 118 123 127 130 249 250 5: 3 10 16 27 28 95  
 British Somaliland 1: 116  
 British South Africa Company (BSAC) 1: 308  
 British West Indies 2: 159  
 British West Indies Federation 2: 146 157  
 Brittany 4: 66  
 Bruno 4: 177 178 179  
 Brocken 4: 205  
 Broklori 4: 206  
 Brokopondo 2: 203  
 Brokopondo Lake 2: 207  
 Bronx Ahato 1: 157  
 Bronx 2: 33 47  
 Brooke James 3: 295  
 Brooklyn 2: 33 47 48  
 Brooks Mount 5: 173  
 Brooks Mountains 2: 26 5: 85 173  
 Brown Guillermo 5: 94  
 Brunsberg National Park 2: 202  
 Broz Josip (*see* Tito)  
 Bruce William 5: 94  
 Bruges 4: 61 191  
 Brunei 3: 6 294 295  
 Brunsbüttel 4: 206  
 Brussels 4: 4 60 61 62 96  
 Brutti people 4: 24  
 Bryansk 4: 299  
 Buvac Canyon 2: 28  
 BSAC (British South Africa Company) 1: 308  
 Bu Ghaffar Mosque 1: 25  
 Buca 5: 18  
 Bulbanza 1: 209  
 Bulbi people 1: 221  
 Bulayan Island 3: 44  
 Bucaco Park 4: 85  
 Buchanan 1: 162 166 167  
 Bucharest 4: 4 249 250 251 252 258  
 Bucharest Treaty of 4: 248  
 Buckingham Palace 4: 96  
 Buda 4: 254 256 258  
 Budapest 4: 4 254 254 255 257 258  
 Buddha 3: 123 133 134 248  
 Buddhism 3: 4 8, 16 100 103 114 115, 122 223 129, 130 132 133 134 168, 173 179 185 198 247 248 249 251 253, 256, 258 260 268, 304, 309 314 4: 314, 5: 152 175  
 Buenos Aires (city) 2: 5 83 290, 291 294 297 310  
 Buenos Aires (province) 2: 295  
 Buffalo (city, U.S.) 2: 33 37  
 Bug River 4: 288 309  
 Buganda 1: 238  
 Buganda kingdom 1: 238 239 248  
 Buhari, Muhammad 1: 172  
 Bugumbura 1: 5, 208 209  
 Bugumbura Mosque 1: 248

- Buka Island 5: 28  
 Bukavu 1: 243  
 Bukhara 3: 33, 351 4: 312 314  
 Bukit Timah 3: 311  
 Bukoba Ridge 1: 234  
 Bukovina 4: 258 304  
 Bukur Island 3: 311  
 Bulawayo 1: 305 306 307  
 Bulgarian 3: 203  
 Bulgarian people 4: 4 235 241  
 248 295 296 303  
 Bulgaria 4: 4 232 238 241  
 5: 97  
 Bulgarian Empire 4: 241  
 Bulgarian language 4: 238  
 Bulgarian people 4: 232, 238  
 Bulgarian Socialist Party 4: 241  
 Bulgarian Tableland 4: 238  
 239  
 Bulhar 1: 116  
 Bulkovada 4: 240  
 Bundesrepublik Deutschland  
 (see Germany)  
 Bunjoro kingdom 1: 238  
 Bungan 3: 45  
 Burgas 4: 239 241  
 Bugas Gulf of 4: 238  
 Burrenland 4: 175  
 Burgheis 3: 129  
 Bugundian people 4: 25, 204  
 Burgundy (Bourgoigne) 4: 66  
 Burkina Faso 1: 61 144  
 146 148 181  
 Burma (see Myanmar)  
 Burman people 3: 245 247  
 249 255 268  
 Burmese kingdom 3: 248 249  
 Burmese language 3: 247  
 Burmese Mountains 3: 101  
 Burmese people 3: 258 259  
 260  
 Burnham Forbes 2: 201  
 Burrough Stephen 5: 87  
 Bursa 3: 5 7 88 59  
 Burt A 2: 162  
 Burn 3: 300  
 Buriundi 1: 5 7 207 208 210  
 229 248  
 Bururi 1: 209  
 Buryat people 3: 202 203  
 Buryatia 4: 299  
 Bush George 2: 44  
 Bush blacks 2: 203 338  
 Bush Plan 2: 245  
 Bushchi 3: 33  
 Bushmen 1: 4 64 235 273  
 278 291 297 298 299  
 303 309, 310  
 Buskerud 4: 138  
 Busoga 1: 238  
 Bustamante Jose Luis 2: 262  
 Busteni 4: 251  
 Butare 1: 228 229  
 Butia Butie 1: 282  
 Butint 4: 235  
 Buvo 1: 151  
 Buyuk River 3: 57  
 Buzau 4: 250  
 Byblos 3: 48  
 Bydgoszcz 4: 194  
 Bylot Island 5: 88  
 Byrd Richard Evelyn 5: 90 94  
 Byron George Gordon 4: 17, 78  
 Bytangi Mountains 4: 297  
 Byumba 1: 228  
 Byzantine civilization 4: 232  
 Byzantine Empire 3: 21 59  
 4: 12 11 25 236 241 246  
 248  
 Byzantine Greek people 4: 20  
 Byzantium 3: 63 343 (see also  
 Constantinople Istanbul)
- C**  
 Ca da Mosto Alvares da 1: 150  
 231 338  
 Ca River 3: 264  
 Caaguazú 2: 302 310  
 Caazapa 2: 302  
 Cabanas 2: 91  
 Cabinda 1: 274 2 6  
 Cabo Delgado 1: 291  
 Cabo San Lucas 2: 115  
 Cabot House of 4: 59  
 Cabona Bassa cascades 1: 274  
 Cabona Bassa dam 1: 291  
 Cabona Bassa Lake 1: 292  
 Cabot John 2: 22, 40, 5: 89  
 Cabot Sebastian 2: 289 297  
 303 5: 89  
 Cabral Amílcar 1: 164  
 Cabral Luis 1: 164  
 Cabral Pedro Álvares 2: 192  
 197 4: 87  
 Cabras 2: 154  
 Cabu 1: 161  
 Caca Aca Mount 2: 238  
 Cachen 1: 164  
 Cacheu River 1: 163  
 Cachi Mount 2: 291  
 Cacaguatique (volcano) 2: 90  
 Cadibona Hall 4: 18  
 Cadiz 4: 89 90  
 Caesar Gaius Julius 1: 20 34  
 (see Germany)  
 Caires Plaine des 1: 335  
 Cagayan River 3: 296 297  
 Cagayan Valley 3: 297  
 Cage John 2: 44  
 Cagliari 4: 19  
 Cagni Umberto 5: 90  
 Caguas 2: 340  
 Cairo 1: 5 6 16 17 18 19 20  
 36  
 Cajamarca 2: 257 258  
 Cajal 1: 174 175  
 Cakandove 5: 18  
 Calabar 1: 170 171  
 Calabria 4: 21  
 Calais 4: 64  
 Calamsho Sand Sea 1: 22  
 Calarasi 4: 250 251  
 Calcareous Alps 4: 199  
 Calcutta 3: 106 109 111 114  
 132  
 Caldas 2: 250  
 Calderon Atlas 2: 114  
 Calderon Rafael Angel 2: 89  
 Calderon River 1: 282  
 Caledonian orogens 5: 138  
 Cileta Clarenza 2: 245  
 Calgary 2: 15 17  
 Cali 2: 251  
 California 2: 4 12 26 27 28  
 31 32 35 36 37 38 39  
 40 41 47 48 106  
 California Gulf of 2: 26 100  
 115  
 Callao 2: 258 260  
 Calles Plutarco Elias 2: 107  
 Calococan 3: 297  
 Calvin John 4: 69 204  
 Camaguey (city) 2: 147 148  
 Camaguey (province) 2: 147  
 148  
 Camaguey Islands 2: 146 147  
 Camata Helder 2: 199  
 Camara de Obo 1: 337  
 Camalduc (Peking) 3: 351  
 Cambodia 3: 6 9 245  
 250 253 260 266 268  
 Cambodian people 3: 258  
 Cambrian Mountains 4: 71  
 Camera National Park 1: 225  
 Cameron Verney Ewen  
 1: 233 234  
 Cameroon 1: 5 64 207  
 210 214  
 Cameroon British 1: 172  
 Cameroon Mount 1: 143, 144  
 211 240  
 Cameroon Mountains 1: 168  
 Cameros Luis de 1: 176 4: 87  
 Camomela Val 4: 18  
 Campanian Islands 4: 19  
 Campbell David 5: 17  
 Campbell Island 5: 91  
 Campador Cid 4: 93  
 Campiche 2: 102  
 Campiche Gulf of 2: 103  
 Campiche Bay 2: 100  
 Campina 2: 293  
 Campina 3: 45  
 Campine people 3: 13  
 Cana 2: 4 5 9 10 11  
 1 11 45 46 17 18 104  
 3 6 59 16  
 Canada Lower 2: 22 23  
 Canada Upper 2: 17 22 23  
 Canadian Arctic 5: 85, 88 89  
 99, 100  
 Canadian Falls 2: 45  
 Canadian National Railway  
 2: 18  
 Canadian Pacific Railway  
 2: 18 120  
 Canadian Shield 2: 1 13 25  
 Canama National Park 2: 206  
 Canal Zone 2: 113  
 Canar 2: 254  
 Canaries Islands 2: 147  
 Canary Current 1: 149  
 Canary Islands (Islas Canarias)  
 1: 337 338 4: 90 5: 173  
 Canbera 5: 7 11 12, 14 42  
 Cancer Tropic of (see Tropic of  
 Cancer)  
 Candidas 3: 103  
 Candiagupia II 3: 115  
 Canelfield 2: 152  
 Canelones 2: 306  
 Canineyu 2: 302  
 Cankuzo 1: 209  
 Canlaon Mount 3: 296  
 Canova Antonio 4: 26  
 Canabria 4: 90  
 Cantabrian Mountains  
 (Cordillera Cantabrica) 4: 88  
 Cantal Plomb de 4: 61  
 Canchungo 1: 161  
 Canterbury (New Zealand)  
 5: 25  
 Canton (see Guangdong  
 (province) of Guangzhou  
 (city))  
 Cantonese dialect 3: 339  
 Canyon de Chelly 2: 48  
 Cao Diego 1: 220 274  
 Cao Bang 3: 265  
 Cao Dai religion 3: 268  
 Cap Hatten 2: 162 163  
 Capac Huana 2: 6  
 Cape (see substantive word  
 except as listed below)  
 Cape Colony 1: 336  
 Cape Dorset culture 2: 21  
 Cape Province Mountain 1: 296  
 Cape region (South Africa) 1:  
 297 299  
 Cape Town 1: 296 297 298  
 299 310  
 Cape Verde 1: 5 144 149 150  
 163 164 175 176 181 337  
 Cape Verde Peninsula 1: 174  
 175  
 Capes Mount 1: 165  
 Capetians 4: 69  
 Capricorn 2: 208  
 Capital Federal (Argentina)  
 2: 295  
 Capital Territory (Australia)  
 5: 11  
 Capitol Hill (Washington D.C.)  
 2: 17  
 Capri 4: 19  
 Capricorn Tropic of (see  
 Tropic of Capricorn)  
 Capivi Oos 1: 294  
 Capin people 4: 287  
 Caqueta 2: 250  
 Caqueta River 2: 248  
 Cara people 2: 255  
 Carabobo 2: 207  
 Carabobo Battle of 2: 210  
 Caracas 2: 5 204 205 207  
 212  
 Caracas University of 2: 210  
 Caras Ilana 5: 1  
 Caranishi Ahmed 1: 25  
 Caras Severin 4: 250  
 Caratasciagon 2: 96  
 Caravaggio 4: 9, 26  
 Carazo 2: 109  
 Carchi 2: 251  
 Cardeñas Lazaro 2: 10  
 Cardiff 4: 76  
 Cardamon Mountains  
 3: 250 251  
 Cardones Catapas Islands  
 1: 289  
 Carri Andino Tiburcio 2: 98  
 Carib people 2: 83 93, 97, 112,  
 141, 148 152, 159, 165,  
 166 167 203 204, 207  
 209, 211  
 Caribbean Community  
 (CARICOM) 2: 84  
 Caribbean Islands 2: 2, 4 81,  
 82 83 84 85, 141 170  
 Caribbean Plate 2: 141  
 Caribbean Sea 2: 1 81 85 86  
 111 149  
 Caribe Cordillera 2: 205  
 CARICOM (Caribbean  
 Community) 2: 84  
 Carinthia 4: 175  
 Caripito 2: 208  
 Carl XVI Gustaf king of  
 Sweden 4: 144  
 Carlists 4: 94  
 Carlos I king of Portugal 4: 87  
 Carlstad Caverns 2: 28  
 Carmel Mount 3: 42  
 Carnc Alps 4: 18 173  
 Carol I king of Romania 4: 252  
 Carolina 2: 340  
 Caroline Islands 5: 3 21 38  
 Carolingian dynasty 4: 25 69  
 190  
 Carolingian Empire 4: 4 175  
 185 200 204 206  
 Caroni 2: 167  
 Caroni Basin 2: 205  
 Caroni Bird Sanctuary 2: 167  
 Carpathian Mountains 4: 177  
 193 197 205 245 249  
 257 309  
 Carpentaria Gulf of 5: 7 14  
 Carpentier Aljo 2: 150  
 Carracci Agostino 4: 26  
 Carracci Annibale 4: 26  
 Carracci Lodovico 4: 26  
 Carratuohill 4: 79  
 Carranza Venustiano 2: 107  
 Carara 4: 21  
 Carera Rafael 2: 95  
 Carrera Andrade Jorge 2: 256  
 Carretera Maymal de la Selva  
 project 2: 259  
 Carreira Panaméricana (see  
 Pan American Highway)  
 Cartagena 2: 251  
 Cartago (city) 2: 89  
 Cartago (province) 2: 88  
 Carter Jimmy 2: 44 114  
 Carter Island 3: 339  
 Cartier Philip 5: 39  
 Carthage 1: 34 4: 24 93  
 Carthaginians 4: 7 78 93  
 Cartier Jacques 2: 22  
 Casa Loma 2: 17  
 Casa Rosada 2: 225  
 Casablanca 1: 27 28 29  
 Casamance region 1: 174 175  
 181  
 Casamance River 1: 173 175  
 181  
 Casas Bartolomeo de las  
 2: 105 155  
 Cascade Range 2: 25  
 Casiquiare River 2: 205  
 Casnado 1: 71  
 Caspian depression 4: 292 305  
 Caspian Sea 3: 1 2 3 6 32  
 35 4: 2 283 297  
 Cassa River 1: 275  
 Cassiodorus 4: 25  
 Castellanos Rosario 2: 107  
 Castilla (Castile) 4: 58 90  
 Castilla Ramon 2: 262  
 Castilla La Mancha 4: 90  
 Castilla Leon 4: 90  
 Castillo 2: 116  
 Castle Geyser 2: 29  
 Castles 2: 165  
 Castro Cipriano 2: 210  
 Castro Fidel 2: 148 150 151  
 169  
 Cat Ba National Park 3: 263  
 Cat Island 2: 143  
 Catalin people 4: 91  
 Catalonia 4: 7 90 92  
 Catamarca 2: 295 296  
 Catani 4: 21  
 Catumbito River 2: 205  
 Cateau Cambresis, Treaty of  
 4: 26, 69  
 Cathedral, Cero 2: 304  
 Cathay 3: 351  
 Catherine II, empress of Russia  
 4: 303 304  
 Catholicism 1: 78 2: 10, 17,  
 32 97 102, 105 116, 148  
 152 160, 161, 165, 167,  
 258, 303, 336 339 3: 298,  
 314 4: 69, 77 79 81 93,  
 94, 126 128, 134 135 204,  
 206, 233 236 238 250  
 253 290  
 Catullus 4: 8 25  
 Cauca 2: 250  
 Cauca River 2: 248  
 Caucasoid peoples 2: 6 3: 109  
 4: 297 5: 151  
 Caucasus 4: 1 297  
 Caucasus Mountains 3: 1 2  
 4: 289–290  
 Causse Plateau 4: 64  
 Cauto River 2: 147  
 Cavaço Silva Anthal 4: 87  
 Cavalry Constantine 4: 17  
 Cavally River 1: 153 165  
 Cavour 4: 26  
 Cayambe Mountain 2: 252 253  
 Cayapo people 2: 211  
 Cayenne 2: 338  
 Cayen Sierra 2: 340  
 Cayman Blue 2: 336  
 Cayman Islands 2: 336  
 Cayman Trench 2: 92 141 146  
 Cayo 2: 86  
 Ceata 2: 191  
 Causescu Nicolae 4: 252 257  
 Cebu 3: 297 298  
 Celebes 3: 300 301 302 311  
 Celebes Sea 3: 300  
 Celestial Empire 3: 180 185  
 265  
 Celtic Iberian civilization 4: 93  
 Celis 4: 69 72 76 93 175  
 179 185 189 198 204  
 255 256  
 Celozon La 5: 137 138  
 Central (Parameyan  
 department) 2: 302  
 Central Sistema 4: 88  
 Central African Federation  
 1: 301 308  
 Central African Republic 1: 5  
 207 211 216 248  
 Central America 2: 1 2 3 4  
 81 82 83 84 85 99  
 108 114  
 Central America United  
 Provinces of 2: 81 89 92  
 95 98 110  
 Central American Trench 2: 141  
 Central Cordillera 2: 88 89  
 Central District (Comatcalan  
 department) 2: 97  
 Central Range (Papua New  
 Guinea) 5: 29  
 Central Russian Upland 4: 297  
 Centre (Sudan region) 1: 76  
 Centre (French region) 4: 66  
 Centre (Haitian department)  
 2: 162  
 Ceram Island 3: 300  
 Ceramoda 4: 251  
 Cerro (see substantive word)  
 Cerro Pico 2: 205  
 Cerro de Pasco 2: 257 259  
 Cerro de Pasco Copper  
 Corporation 2: 8  
 Cerro Largo 2: 306  
 Cervantes, Miguel de 4: 94  
 Cervino Monte (see  
 Matterhorn)  
 Cesane Anne 1: 8  
 Cesariac 2: 250  
 Cesari C 1: 25  
 Ceska Republika (see  
 Czechoslovakia)  
 České Budějovice 4: 178  
 Ceskos River 1: 165  
 Cetina River 4: 242  
 Cetine 4: 245  
 Cetina 1: 347  
 Cevcimes Mountains 4: 64

- Ceyhan River 3: 57  
 Ceylon (see Sri Lanka)  
 Chachacoma (mountain) 2: 238  
 Chachani (mountain) 2: 257  
 Chaco region (Argentina) 2: 291, 292, 295, 302  
 Chaco region (Bolivia) 2: 239, 241  
 Chaco War 2: 84  
 Chad 1: 5, 61, 62, 65, 74, 80, 335  
 Chad Lake 1: 3, 61, 62, 64, 72, 73, 79, 143, 168, 210, 211, 212, 214  
 Chalcidias Islands 1: 337  
 Chagang-do 3: 184  
 Chagos Islands 3: 339  
 Chagos Lacadive Plateau 3: 119  
 Chagres River 2: 112  
 Chaguaramas 2: 167  
 Chahar Mahal (Bakhtian) 3: 33  
 Chaili massif 1: 216, 217, 219  
 Chaimai 3: 259  
 Chakki dynasty 3: 260  
 Chalatenango 2: 91  
 Chalcidion Council of 3: 59  
 Chalcidion Peninsula 4: 14, 15  
 Chalcidian people 4: 24  
 Chaldeans 3: 52  
 Chalky Mount 2: 145  
 Chalna 3: 103  
 Cham people 3: 245  
 Hambord Castle 4: 96  
 Chamorro Violeta 2: 111  
 Champa kingdom 3: 265  
 Champagne 4: 67  
 Champagne-Ardenne 4: 66  
 Champagny-Cerro 2: 291  
 Champtasak 3: 255  
 Champlain Samuel de 2: 46  
 Chamucillo 2: 245  
 Chamucay Valley 2: 264  
 Chancelade people 4: 3  
 Chan Chan 2: 260  
 Chandradah 3: 109  
 Chang-hang (river) 3: 3, 170, 171, 175, 209  
 Chang-an 3: 179, 349 (see also Xi'an)  
 Changhua 3: 207  
 Changri 3: 312  
 Changsong 3: 189  
 Channel Islands 4: 71, 72, 73  
 Chanthaburi 3: 259  
 Chao Phraya Plain 3: 259  
 Chao Phraya River 3: 257, 258, 260, 268  
 Chaoma 1: 17  
 Charcot, Jean Baptiste 5: 94  
 Chandzou 4: 307  
 Chan River 1: 62, 64, 72, 79, 212, 214  
 Chan Valley 1: 211, 215  
 Chari Bagurmi 1: 63  
 Charlemagne 4: 8, 25, 69, 175, 190, 206  
 Charleston 4: 61, 62  
 Charles Mary Eugenia 2: 152  
 Charles I Holy Roman emperor 4: 26, 179  
 Charles I king of Spain 4: 93, 94  
 Charles II king of England 4: 77  
 Charles III king of Spain 4: 94  
 Charles IV Holy Roman emperor 4: 83, 186  
 Charles V Holy Roman emperor 4: 9, 28, 31, 62, 176, 190  
 Charles V king of Spain 2: 209, 261  
 Charles VI Holy Roman emperor 4: 176, 188  
 Charles VIII king of France 4: 26  
 Charles X king of Sweden 4: 125  
 Charles XIV king of Sweden 4: 144  
 Charlotte grand duchess of Nassau 4: 53  
 Charlotte Amalie 2: 340  
 Charlottenburg Palace 4: 206  
 Chartres Cathedral 4: 96  
 Chatham Islands 5: 25  
 Chaucer Geoffrey 4: 77  
 Chavin 2: 6, 260  
 Chavin culture 2: 260  
 Chavin people 2: 82  
 Chavies Peak 2: 336  
 Chearoco Mountain 2: 238  
 Cheb 4: 177  
 Checacupe 2: 264  
 Chechaouen 1: 28  
 Chechen people 4: 297  
 Chechen Ingushetia 4: 299  
 Cheikou Amadou 1: 80  
 Cheju-do (Cheju Island) 3: 187, 188  
 Cheka 4: 313  
 Cheliff Tich 1: 13  
 Cheliff River 1: 11  
 Chelme 4: 194  
 Chelyabinsk 4: 299, 300  
 Chelyuskir Cape 5: 89  
 Chelyuskir Semiyon 5: 89  
 Chemama region 1: 69, 70  
 Chenab River 3: 107  
 Cheng 3: 177, 178, 209  
 Cheng Ch'eng-king 3: 208  
 Chengdu 3: 177, 176  
 Chentia kingdom 3: 252  
 Chengur Chott elch 1: 11  
 Cherassy 4: 309  
 Chernigov 4: 309  
 Chernobyl 2: 37, 4: 302, 311  
 Chernovtsy 4: 309  
 Cherrapunji 3: 108  
 Cherra Island 5: 31  
 Chervenkiv Vulk 4: 241  
 Chesapeake Bay 2: 36  
 Chesterfield Islands 5: 39  
 Chetumal 2: 115  
 Cheyenne people 2: 29, 40  
 Chhattisgarh P. m. 3: 108  
 Chhat 3: 207  
 Chiang Ching-kuo 3: 208  
 Chiang Kai-shek 3: 181, 208  
 Chiang Mai 3: 256, 257, 258, 259, 260  
 Chiapas (state) 2: 102, 116  
 Chiapas region 2: 99, 100, 101, 101  
 Chiba 3: 192, 197  
 Chibcha civilization 2: 237  
 Chibcha language 2: 109  
 Chibcha people 2: 83, 109, 117, 249, 251  
 Chicago 2: 27, 32, 33, 37, 38, 39, 40  
 Chichan Itza 2: 82, 116  
 Chiers River 4: 83  
 Chihuahua 2: 100, 102  
 Chikla Lake 3: 133  
 Chile 2: 3, 4, 6, 81, 83, 84, 237, 241, 242, 247, 263, 264, 5: 95, 96, 97  
 Chile National University of 2: 246  
 Chile possessions in Oceania 5: 4, 38, 39  
 Chiloe Island 2: 242  
 Chitung 3: 207  
 Chitwa Lake 1: 28, 291  
 Chimaltengo 2: 93  
 Chimboraço (province) 2: 254  
 Chimboraço (mountain) 2: 253, 263  
 Chimbote 2: 260  
 Chimbú 5: 29  
 Chinkent 4: 292  
 Chinnu people 2: 237  
 Chin 3: 247  
 Ch'in (Qin) dynasties 3: 177, 179  
 Chin Hills 3: 246  
 Chin people 3: 245, 247  
 China 3: 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 100, 105, 167, 168, 169, 182, 186, 200, 207, 209, 210, 339, 340, 349, 351, 5: 97, 148, 168  
 China Great Wall of 3: 178, 209  
 China Sea East 3: 167, 206  
 China Sea South 3: 254, 261, 267, 294, 298, 300, 310  
 Chinandega 2: 109  
 Chinatown 2: 47  
 Chincas Islands 2: 262  
 Chinde 1: 292  
 Chindwin River 3: 246, 249  
 Chinese Communist Party 3: 181  
 Chinese people 1: 284, 285, 289, 335, 3: 1, 4, 183, 185, 188, 192, 206, 208, 251, 258, 265, 266, 293, 294, 301, 303, 307, 310, 311, 339, 5: 18, 23  
 Ch'ing (Qing) dynasty 3: 180, 181, 186, 205  
 Chingo (1 volcano) 2: 90  
 Chingobo Mountains 1: 303  
 Chingola 1: 303  
 Chinguetto oasis 1: 80  
 Chinnu people 3: 185  
 Chinnu 1: 306  
 Chimon 4: 68  
 Chios 4: 17  
 Chiquitos Plateau 2: 239  
 Chio Island 2: 88  
 Chiri-san (mountain) 3: 187  
 Chiriqui (province) 2: 112  
 Chiriqui (mountain) 2: 112  
 Chirripo Grande 2: 88  
 Chita 4: 299  
 Chittagong 3: 101, 102, 103  
 Chitungwiza 1: 306  
 Chuta Lake 1: 287  
 Choa people 1: 211  
 Chobe 1: 278  
 Choco 2: 250  
 Chosel Island 5: 31  
 Choku Shrine 5: 94  
 Chokwe people 1: 275  
 Cholla 3: 185  
 Cholon 3: 264  
 Cholulca 2: 97  
 Cholulca River 2: 96  
 Cholulca Valley 2: 97  
 Chonan 3: 189  
 Chonco (mountain) 2: 108  
 Chongjin 3: 184, 185  
 Chongju 3: 188, 189  
 Chongqing 3: 172  
 Chontal people 2: 90  
 Chontales 2: 109  
 Choson kingdom 3: 185  
 Choson Minjuju Inmin Konghwaguk (see North Korea)  
 Chosun River 3: 206  
 Chota Nappin Plateau 3: 107, 113  
 Chott (see substantive word)  
 Chou civilization 3: 177  
 Choybalsan 3: 202, 201  
 Chubbi Dyss 1: 30  
 Chica National Park 1: 17  
 Christ 4: 25  
 Christchurch 5: 24, 25, 27  
 Christian Democratic Party (Chile) 2: 217  
 Christian Democratic Party (El Salvador) 2: 92  
 Christian Democratic Party (Nicaragua) 4: 192  
 Christian Democratic Party (Venezuela) 2: 210  
 Christian II king of Denmark 4: 144  
 Christian X king of Denmark 4: 125, 133  
 Christianity 1: 20, 78, 105, 109, 111, 157, 2: 10, 167, 167, 217, 3: 1, 9, 4: 8, 25, 76, 134, 140, 141, 179, 190, 198, 204, 243, 246, 256, 255, 286, 305, 5: 3, 11, 151 (see also Catholicism, Eastern Orthodoxy, Greek Orthodoxy, Protestantism, Russian Orthodoxy, Church)  
 Christians 3: 17, 33, 47, 48  
 Christmaburg Palace 4: 146  
 Christened 2: 330  
 Christos 4: 94  
 Christmas Island 3: 339, 5: 70  
 Chivster 2: 35  
 Chu River 4: 297  
 Chu Yuan-chang 3: 180  
 Chuacuas Sierra de 2: 93  
 Chubut 2: 295  
 Chucunague River 2: 112  
 Chukchi District 4: 299  
 Chukchi Peninsula 5: 85  
 Chukchi Sea 5: 85  
 Chun Doo Hwan 3: 190  
 Chungch'ong 3: 188  
 Chung-hua Min-kuo (see Taiwan)  
 Chungli 3: 207  
 Chuor Plimth Kravanh Mountains 3: 250, 251  
 Chuquimata 2: 264  
 Chiquisaca 2: 239  
 Churchill Winston 2: 43, 4: 78  
 Chuvashiya 4: 299  
 Cuzco de Basilio 3: 9, 266  
 Cibao Valley 2: 153, 155  
 Cibola 1: 209  
 Cicero 4: 25  
 Cichamow 4: 194  
 Ciego de Avila 2: 148, 149  
 Cienfuegos 2: 147, 148  
 Cilian Gates 3: 333, 335  
 Cimmerian people 4: 311  
 Cimone Monte 4: 19  
 Cimpina 4: 251  
 Cinto Monte 4: 64  
 Cinco National Park 4: 20  
 Circum-Pacific Mountains 3: 167  
 Cirlin 4: 31  
 Cirne (see Mammoth)  
 Ciro Akoria 2: 262  
 Cisalpine Gaul 4: 24  
 Ciscamasta 4: 301, 302  
 Cispontin 3: 29, 30, 42, 44  
 Cister people 1: 297  
 Cisterna 4: 176  
 City of the Lions 3: 312  
 Ciudad Bolívar 2: 205, 209, 210, 212  
 Ciudad de la Habana 2: 148  
 Ciudad de la Plata 2: 239, 211  
 Ciudad Guayana 2: 207, 209  
 Ciudad Trujillo (see Santo Domingo)  
 Civic Democratic Party (Czechoslovakia) 4: 179  
 Civic Forum (Czechoslovakia) 4: 179  
 Civitavecchia 4: 23  
 Clarendon 2: 157  
 Clark William 2: 11, 28  
 Clarke Marcus 5: 16  
 Claviers Xavier 2: 106  
 Claver Woods Park 2: 167  
 Cleopatra VII 1: 20  
 Clermont Ferrand 4: 64  
 Cleveland 2: 33, 37, 38  
 Clipperton Island 5: 40  
 Clive Robert 3: 104, 117  
 Clovis king of the Salian Franks 4: 69, 191  
 Cluj 4: 250, 251  
 Cluj Napoca 4: 249, 250, 251  
 Clutha River 5: 21  
 Clyde Lifford 4: 72  
 Clyde River 4: 72  
 CMRN (Military Committee for National Redressment) [Guinea] 1: 162  
 Coahuila 2: 102, 116  
 Coard Bernard 2: 160  
 Coast Mountains (Canada) 2: 13  
 Coast Mountains (U.S.) 2: 25, 26  
 Coastal Mountains (Mexico) 2: 99  
 Coatzacoalcas 2: 104  
 Cochabamba Cordillera de 2: 235  
 Cochabamba 2: 239  
 Cochui 3: 114  
 Cochui China 3: 245, 262, 64, 263, 265  
 Cockburn Town 2: 357  
 Cockpit Country 2: 15  
 Cockscumb Mountains 2: 86, 87  
 Cock 2: 112  
 Coco 112, 89  
 Coco Island (Costa Rica) 2: 88  
 Coco Islands (Australia) 3: 339  
 Coco River 2: 96, 110  
 Cocos Plate 2: 141  
 Codazzi Agostino 2: 248  
 Codoba 2: 291  
 Coetivy Island 1: 232  
 Cognac 4: 67  
 Conibya 4: 84, 85, 86  
 Cojedes 2: 207  
 Cola dynasty 3: 116  
 Colbert Jean Baptiste 2: 9, 4: 70  
 Colchis plain 4: 290  
 Cold War 2: 43, 4: 10, 313  
 Coleridge Samuel Taylor 4: 78  
 Colima (state) 2: 102  
 Collins Tom 5: 16  
 Colloiti Timica 3: 116  
 Colomac Island 3: 340  
 Cologne 4: 8, 181, 182  
 Colombia 2: 2, 4, 8, 84, 114, 164, 187, 210, 212, 247, 217, 252, 5: 38, 97  
 Colombia 3: 6, 178, 129, 130, 133  
 Colombia Plan for Cooperative Economic Development in South and Southeast Asia 5: 159  
 Colon (London) 2: 254  
 Colon (Honduras) 2: 97  
 Colon (Panama) 2: 112  
 Colonia 2: 306, 307  
 Colorado 2: 31, 35, 36, 37, 40, 46  
 Colorado Plateau 2: 46  
 Colorado River (Mexico) 2: 100  
 Colorado River (U.S.) 2: 26, 46  
 Coloured people 1: 297, 298, 306  
 Columbans 4: 81  
 Columbia District of (see Washington D.C.)  
 Columbia Mount 2: 46  
 Columbia Ketfield 2: 15  
 Columbia University 2: 33  
 Columbian Confederation 2: 114  
 Columbus Bartolomeo 2: 154, 170  
 Columbus Christopher 2: 3, 89, 98, 113, 141, 143, 144, 150, 152, 154, 158, 160, 162, 164, 165, 166, 167, 170, 201, 209, 4: 8  
 Comata de San Blas 2: 112  
 Comayagua 2: 97, 98  
 COMECON 2: 149, 4: 178, 183, 184, 195, 240, 246, 252  
 COMIBOL 2: 241  
 Commo 4: 27  
 Comité de Organización Política Electoral Independiente (COPEI) [Venezuela] 2: 210  
 Commedia d'arte 4: 26  
 Commewijne 2: 203  
 Common African and Malagasy Organization (OCA-M) [Mamitama] 1: 70  
 Commonwealth of Australia (see Australia)  
 Commonwealth of the Bahamas (see Bahamas)  
 Commonwealth of Dominica (see Dominica)  
 Commonwealth of Independent states 4: 10, 283, 289, 290, 293, 294, 296, 303, 306, 311  
 Commonwealth of Nations 1: 155, 5: 27, 28, 33, 35, 46  
 Commonwealth of Northern Mariana Islands 5: 40  
 Communism 4: 17, 70, 182, 198, 300, 401, 404  
 Communist Front of the United Left (Nepal) 3: 123  
 Communist Party (France) 4: 70  
 Communist Party (Germany) 4: 187  
 Communist Party (Russia) 4: 300, 304  
 Communist Party (Slovakia) 4: 198

- Community of Nations (*see* French Community)  
 Community Party (Greece) 4: 17  
 Como, Lake 4: 18  
 Comodoro Rivadavia 2: 296, 297, 310  
 Comoé 1: 147  
 Comoé River 1: 146, 147, 153  
 Comonfort, Ignacio 2: 106  
 Comoros Islands 1: 5, 280–281, 284, 336  
 Compagnie des Forges 2: 19  
 Compromise of 1867 4: 256  
 Comunidad Valenciana 4: 90  
 Con Cuong 3: 264  
 Conakry 1: 5, 160, 161, 162  
 Concepción (Bolivia) 2: 239  
 Concepción (Chile) 2: 243, 244  
 Concepción (Paraguay) 2: 302  
 Conchos River 2: 100  
 Concón 2: 245  
 Condomine, La 4: 29  
 Conduriri (mountain) 2: 238  
 Confederation of Bolivia and Peru 2: 84  
 Confederation of the Rhine 4: 186, 188  
 Confédération Suisse (*see* Switzerland)  
 Confederazione Svizzera (*see* Switzerland)  
 Conference of Berlin (1885) 1: 172  
 Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe (CSCE) 4: 6  
 Confucianism 3: 4, 8, 9, 173, 177, 178, 179, 185, 186, 199, 266, 5: 152  
 Confucius 3: 177  
 Cộng Hòa Xã Hội Chủ Nghĩa Việt Nam (*see* Vietnam)  
 Congo 4: 63 (*see also* Zaïre (country)), 1: 5, 7, 207, 216, 218, 246, 248  
 Congo, French 1: 220  
 Congo, Kingdom of the 1: 245, 248  
 Congo, Middle 1: 218, 335  
 Congo Basin 1: 75, 240  
 Congo River 1: 2, 3, 105, 207, 208, 211, 214, 216, 217, 218, 228, 233, 240–241, 245, 247, 248, 274, 275, 276, 302  
 Congolese Labor Party 1: 218  
 Congolese National Movement 1: 246  
 Conn 4: 81  
 Connacht 4: 81  
 Connecticut 2: 31, 33, 40  
 Cono Sur 2: 83  
 Conradin, prince of Germany 4: 26  
 Conservative Party (Chile) 2: 246  
 Conservative Party (Great Britain) 4: 75, 78  
 Conservative Party (Norway) 4: 140  
 Conservative Party (Spain) 4: 94  
 Constance, Lake 4: 2, 174, 187  
 Constance, Peace of 4: 26  
 Constance of Altavilla 4: 26  
 Constanța 4: 249, 250, 251, 252  
 Constantine 1: 12–13, 14, 4: 8, 25  
 Constantine Plan 1: 13, 14  
 Constantinople 3: 59, 351, 4: 8, 12, 241, 308, 314 (*see also* Byzantium, Istanbul)  
 Constantinople, Sultan of 1: 25  
 Constitución, Plaza de la 2: 116  
 Constitution of 1787 (U.S.) 2: 10, 12, 41  
 Constitutional Act of 1791 (Great Britain) 2: 22  
 Conti, Niccolò de' 3: 245  
 Continental Congress (U.S.) 2: 41  
 Continental Divide (*see* Rocky Mountains)  
 Continental Mountains 2: 46  
 Contrás 2: 98, 111  
 Cook, Frederick 5: 90  
 Cook, James 5: 3, 6, 16, 19, 25, 27, 35, 37, 38, 40, 93  
 Cook, Mount 5: 2, 24, 41  
 Cook Islands 5: 38, 40  
 Cooper, James Fenimore 2: 41–42  
 Copán (city) 2: 98  
 Copán (department) 2: 95  
 Copán Valley 2: 97  
 COPEI (Comité de Organización Política Electoral Independiente) [Venezuela] 2: 210  
 Copenhagen 4: 4, 123, 124, 125, 146  
 Copernicus, Nicolaus 4: 9, 5: 125  
 Copiapó River 2: 243  
 Coppens, Yves 1: 4, 5: 148  
 Copperbelt 1: 303, 304  
 Coptic Church 1: 20, 78, 105, 106, 109, 118  
 Coptic language 1: 17  
 Coquimbo 2: 244  
 Coral Sea 5: 7, 29  
 Coral Sea Islands 5: 38  
 Corbett National Park 3: 108  
 Corcovado 2: 211  
 Cordillera (*see* substantive word, except as listed below)  
 Cordillera (Paraguay) 2: 302  
 Cordillera (Philippines) 3: 297  
 Córdoba (city) 2: 250, 294, 297  
 Córdoba (province) 2: 295  
 Cordova 4: 93  
 Corfu 4: 14, 16  
 Cor Berardo 5: 168  
 Cornith, Gulf of 4: 14  
 Cornith Canal 4: 32  
 Cornithians 4: 24  
 Corinto 2: 110  
 Corisco, Baie de 1: 221  
 Cork 4: 79, 80, 81  
 Corn Belt 2: 35  
 Comaro, Catherine 3: 26  
 Cornigliano 4: 32  
 Coronado, Francisco Vazquez de 2: 40  
 Coronie 2: 203  
 Corozal 2: 86, 87  
 Cormenets 2: 294, 295  
 Corsica (Corse) 4: 12, 24, 26, 63, 64, 65, 66  
 Cortés (Guatemala) 2: 97  
 Cortés, Hernán 2: 105, 116  
 Coruba River 1: 163  
 Coruña, La 4: 89  
 Corvin, Mátyás 4: 256  
 Corvinus, Matthias 4: 179  
 Cosigüina, Mount 2: 108  
 Cosigüina Peninsula 2: 108  
 Cosmas 4: 241  
 Cosnacks 4: 309  
 Costa, Caludio Manuel da 2: 198  
 Costa, Cordillera de la 2: 205  
 Costa, Lucio 2: 199, 212  
 Costa, Manuel Pinto da 1: 231  
 Costa Rica 2: 4, 85, 87–89, 116, 5: 38  
 Costadoni, Gian Carlo 1: 64  
 Côte d'Azur 4: 29, 31  
 Coto River 2: 88  
 Cotonou 1: 145, 146  
 Cotopaxi (province) 2: 253, 254  
 Cotopaxi (mountain) 2: 253  
 Cottian Alps 4: 18  
 Cotton Belt 2: 35  
 Couffo River 1: 145  
 Council of Popular Redemption (Libania) 1: 167  
 Counter-Reformation 2: 10, 4: 9, 26, 186, 196, 204  
 Cour people 4: 134  
 Courantyne River 2: 202  
 Courbet, Admiral 3: 208  
 Courland 4: 135  
 Cozacoa 4: 250  
 Craiova 4: 249, 250  
 Crassus 4: 24  
 Crawford, Thomas 2: 47  
 Cree people 2: 15  
 Crémarie, Octave 2: 22  
 Creole languages 2: 87, 143, 152, 160, 161, 166, 336  
 Creole people 1: 177, 178, 232, 289, 335, 2: 83, 90, 92, 93, 94, 101, 105–106, 115, 150, 203, 210, 239, 244, 249, 251, 254, 258, 301, 338  
 Crespo, Joaquín 2: 210  
 Crete 4: 12, 14, 16, 17  
 Crête de la Nieve 4: 64  
 Crèveceur, John de 2: 10  
 Crimea 4: 232, 309, 311  
 Cristal, Sierra del 2: 149  
 Crisallo Mountains 1: 219  
 Cristiani, Alfredo 2: 92  
 Cristóbal 2: 113  
 Cma Gora 4: 245  
 Cmi Dam River 4: 247  
 Cmi Vrh 4: 199  
 Croat people 4: 176, 200, 232, 236, 237, 243, 244, 258  
 Crouatia 4: 4, 12, 172, 242–244, 247, 257, 258  
 Crocker Range 3: 306  
 Crocus Bay 2: 335  
 Crocus Hill 2: 335  
 Cro Magnon people 4: 3  
 Cromwell, Oliver 4: 77, 81  
 Cross, Fell 4: 71  
 Cross River 1: 169  
 Crozet Islands 5: 91  
 CRUA (Revolutionary Committee for Union and Action) [Algeria] 1: 15  
 Crusades 3: 26, 30, 43, 55, 59, 4: 8, 17, 25, 135  
 Crusading Knights of the Sword 4: 127  
 Cruz, Virato da 1: 277  
 CSCL (Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe) 4: 6  
 Csongrad 4: 254  
 CSU (United Somali Congress) 1: 116  
 Cuando River 1: 275  
 Cuando-Cubango 1: 276  
 Cuango River 1: 275  
 Cuanza 1: 276  
 Cuanza River 1: 275  
 Cuba 2: 4, 8, 43, 141, 146–151, 169, 170, 340, 4: 305, 5: 97  
 Cubango 1: 276  
 Cuchilla de Belén 2: 305  
 Cuchilla de Huedo 2: 305  
 Cuchilla Grande del Durazno 2: 305  
 Cuchilla Negra 2: 305  
 Cuc Phung National Park 3: 263  
 Cuenca 2: 254  
 Cuenca region 2: 253  
 Cueva de los Guacharos 2: 249  
 Cueva de los Manos 2: 310  
 Cuibá 2: 191  
 Cui-de-Sac lowland 2: 161, 170  
 Culango people 1: 152  
 Culebra Island 2: 340  
 Cultural Revolution (China) 3: 174  
 Cumac 4: 24  
 Cumberland Plateau 2: 24  
 Cumbrian Mountains 4: 71  
 Cunaxa, Battle of 3: 343  
 Cundigamarca 2: 250  
 Cunene 1: 276  
 Cunene River 1: 275  
 Cunha, Tristão da 1: 290  
 Curaçao 2: 208, 339  
 Curary River 2: 253  
 Curepipe 1: 289  
 Curitiba 2: 191  
 Curzon Line 4: 196, 289  
 Cuscatlán 2: 91, 92  
 Cuscatlán Lake 2: 90  
 Cush, Kingdom of 1: 7, 78  
 Cushitic language 1: 109, 113  
 Cushitic people 1: 111, 115  
 Cui Long 3: 263  
 Cuveite 1: 217  
 Cuyuni-Mazaruni 2: 200  
 Cuza, Alexandru Ioan 4: 252  
 Cuzco (city) 2: 82, 257, 260–261  
 Cuzco (department) 2: 258  
 Cyangugu 1: 228  
 Cyclades 4: 14  
 Cypriot Orthodox Church 3: 26  
 Cyprus 3: 6, 24–26, 63, 4: 12, 17  
 Cyrenaica Mountains 1: 22, 23  
 Cyrenaica region 1: 24, 25, 35  
 Cyrene 1: 24  
 Cyrus the Great 3: 36  
 Cyrus the Younger 3: 16, 342–343  
 Czech people 4: 198, 250  
 Czech Republic 4: 4  
 Czechoslovakia 4: 10, 171, 176, 186, 198, 206, 305, 5: 97  
 Czystałowa 4: 194
- D**  
 Da Nang 3: 261, 264, 265  
 Dabakala 1: 152  
 Dabie Range 3: 169  
 Dabola 1: 162  
 Da Lac 3: 263  
 Dachstein Mountain 4: 173  
 Dacia 4: 8, 232  
 Dacian people 4: 252  
 Dacko, David 1: 216  
 Daddah, Mokhtar Ould 1: 71  
 Dadra 3: 109  
 Daesong 3: 189  
 Dagbani people 1: 157  
 Dagestan 4: 299  
 Dagomba people 1: 180  
 Dahana Desert 3: 18  
 Dahr, Djebel 1: 31  
 Dahlak Archipelago 1: 107  
 Dahomey 1: 182, 335  
 Dahomey kingdom 1: 145, 146  
 Dahuk 3: 38  
 Dai Viet kingdom 3: 256, 265  
 Daidé, Barnard 1: 153  
 Dainelli, Giotto 5: 90, 91  
 Dair Jebel ed 1: 75  
 Dairy Belt 2: 35  
 Datto Islands 5: 38  
 Dajabón 2: 154  
 Daka River 1: 156  
 Dakar 1: 5, 6, 66, 67, 80, 173, 174, 175, 176, 182  
 Dakar Peninsula 1: 173  
 Dakhilah 3: 50  
 Dakhla oasis 1: 18, 19  
 Dakhlet Nouadhibou 1: 70  
 Dakota people 2: 11  
 Dalada Maligawa Temple 3: 129  
 Dalai Lama 3: 173  
 Dalap Uliga-Darrit 5: 20  
 Dalian 3: 176  
 Dalin Olaf von 4: 144  
 Dallas 2: 27, 31, 33, 39, 40  
 Dalmatia 4: 232, 235, 242, 243, 257, 258  
 Dalmatian Islands 4: 12  
 Dalmatian people 4: 232  
 Dalmine 4: 22  
 Dalou 1: 152  
 Damanhur 1: 18  
 Damaraland 1: 294  
 Damascus 3: 6, 52, 53, 54, 55, 63–64  
 Damavand, Mount 3: 31  
 Dandiny Sübbeater 3: 205  
 Damietta 1: 18  
 Damodar River 3: 113  
 Dâmre Mountains 3: 250–251  
 Da Nang 3: 263  
 Dan people 1: 166, 167  
 Danakil depression 1: 3, 105, 106, 108, 109, 110, 112, 114, 117  
 Danakil Mountains 1: 113  
 Danakil people 1: 109, 117  
 Danané 1: 152  
 Danubian Plain 4: 197  
 Dances 4: 121, 124  
 Dangrek Mountains 3: 250  
 Dangra 2: 87  
 Danish Archipelago 4: 123  
 Danish kingdom 4: 125  
 Danish language 4: 140  
 Dante Alighieri 4: 11, 25  
 Danube Plain 4: 3, 240, 243  
 Danube River 4: 2, 171, 173, 181, 197, 199, 242, 244, 249, 255, 257, 258  
 Danzig 4: 10  
 Daphne 3: 55  
 Daqahliya 1: 18  
 Dar es Salaam 1: 234, 235  
 Dara 3: 54  
 Daravica (mountain) 4: 245  
 Dardanelles 3: 56, 345  
 Dardur kingdom 1: 64  
 Dardur massif 1: 62  
 Dardur region 1: 75, 76, 78  
 Darhan 3: 203  
 Daré 2: 112  
 Darién (Panama) 2: 112, 113  
 Darién, Gulf of 2: 85  
 Darién, Serrania del 2: 112, 249  
 Darío, Rubén 2: 111  
 Darius 3: 16, 36, 66, 345  
 Darjeeling 3: 132  
 Darlan, Antoine 1: 215–216  
 Darling Range 5: 14  
 Darling River 5: 2, 8  
 Darnah 1: 22, 23  
 Darod people 1: 116  
 Darrut islet 5: 21  
 Darulaman 3: 15  
 Darun River 3: 31  
 Darwin (Australia) 5: 7, 12  
 Darwin, Charles 2: 253, 263, 309, 5: 16  
 Das Island 3: 27  
 Daxit-e Kavii (Kavir Desert) 3: 31, 63  
 Daxit-e Lut (Lut Desert) 3: 31  
 Datu, Cape 3: 306  
 Daugava River 4: 134  
 Daugavpils 4: 134  
 Daule River 2: 253  
 Daunubia 4: 9  
 Davao 3: 297, 298  
 David (Panama) 2: 112  
 David, king of Judah and Israel 3: 43  
 Davila, González 2: 110  
 Davis, John 5: 89  
 Davis Strait 2: 13, 5: 88  
 Daw Aung San Suu Kyi 3: 250  
 Dawlat al Bahrain (*see* Bahrain)  
 Dawlat al Kuwayt (*see* Kuwait (country))  
 Dawlat al Qatar (*see* Qatar)  
 Dayak people 3: 294, 301, 307, 308, 313–314  
 Dayr az-Zawi 3: 54, 65  
 De Gasperi, Alcide 4: 27  
 De Gaulle, Charles 1: 15, 16, 65, 162, 4: 70  
 de Kleef, F. W. 1: 300  
 De La Kara 1: 180  
 De Long, George 5: 90  
 De Long Islands 5: 87, 88  
 de Mathusieux, Henri Méhner 1: 24  
 de Quinnsy (de Quincy), J.-B. Quéau 1: 232  
 de Soto, Hernando 2: 40  
 de Surville (French explorer) 5: 27  
 Dead Sea 3: 28, 29, 41, 43, 63, 65, 5: 132  
 Death Valley 2: 2, 25, 5: 173  
 Debra Damo 1: 111  
 Debrecent 4: 253, 254, 255  
 Deccan region 3: 2, 99, 106, 111, 113, 131  
 Declaration of Independence (U.S.) 2: 10, 41  
 Declaratory Act (Great Britain) 2: 41  
 Defenestration of Prague 4: 176, 179  
 Defoe, Daniel 2: 242  
 Dégrad-des-Cannes 2: 338  
 Delkhoda 3: 36  
 Den Angang, Michael F. 1: 159  
 Dej 4: 251  
 Delap Island 5: 21

- Delavaud, Claude Collin 2: 257  
 Delaware 2: 31  
 Delta 4: 191  
 Delhi 3: 109, 111, 116  
 Delhi, sultanate of 3: 8, 103, 127  
 Delphi 4: 32  
 Delta (Nigeria) 1: 169  
 Delta Amacuro 2: 207  
 Delta Plan (Netherlands) 4: 189  
 Delta region (Egypt) 1: 17, 18, 19, 20  
 Demerara-Mahaica region 2: 200  
 Demirkazık (mountain) 3: 57  
 Democratic Alliance for Civic Opposition (ADOC) [Panama] 2: 114  
 Democratic Justice Party (South Korea) 3: 190  
 Democratic Left Party (ID) [Ecuador] 2: 256  
 Democratic Movement for the Rebirth of Malagasy (MDRM) 1: 286  
 Democratic Party (U.S.) 2: 43  
 Democratic Party (PDA) [Albania] 4: 235  
 Democratic Party of Guinea (PDG) 1: 162  
 Democratic People's Republic of Korea (see Korea)  
 Democratic Republic of Vietnam 3: 266 (see also Vietnam)  
 Democratic Republican Party (U.S.) 2: 41  
 Dempster, Roland 1: 167  
 Den No Oura, Battle of 3: 212  
 Denali National Park 2: 45  
 Deng Xiaoping 3: 182  
 Denis, Pierre 2: 293  
 Denmark 4: 4, 6, 10, 57, 121, 122, 123-125, 145, 146; 5: 86, 97  
 Denmark, possessions in the Americas 2: 4  
 D'Entrecasteaux Islands 5: 28  
 Denver (England) 4: 96  
 Denver (U.S.) 2: 27, 33  
 Derdap National Park 4: 245  
 Des Plateaux 1: 180  
 Des Savanes 1: 180  
 Desague River 2: 90  
 Descartes, René 4: 9  
 Desvado River 2: 243  
 Deserta Grande Island 1: 337  
 Desiderius 4: 25  
 Desiles, Clarisse 1: 232  
 Desto, Ardit 3: 247  
 d'Esnambuc, Pierre Béluin 2: 142, 164  
 Dessalines, Jean-Jacques 2: 162  
 Dessie 1: 110  
 Destour Socialist Party (PSD) 1: 34  
 Detroit 2: 33, 37, 38, 39  
 Devon Island 5: 88  
 Devon-Cornwall Peninsula 4: 71  
 Dez River 3: 31  
 Dhahirah 3: 50  
 Dahrhan 3: 20, 21  
 Dhaka 3: 6, 101, 102  
 Dhaka-Narayanganj 3: 103  
 Dhaleswari River 3: 102  
 Dhamar 3: 61  
 Dhannah, Jebel 3: 27  
 Dhaulagiri, Mount 3: 121  
 Dhaulagiri 3: 122  
 Dhi Qar 3: 38  
 Dhlomo brothers 1: 300  
 Diagiti people 2: 297  
 Diagne, Blaise 1: 176  
 Diamond Mountains 3: 183  
 Diamou 1: 67  
 Diana's Peak 1: 336  
 Diaz, Bartolomeu 1: 176, 274  
 Díaz, Porfirio 2: 106  
 Díaz de Solís, Juan 2: 297, 308  
 Díaz Rodríguez, Manuel 2: 210  
 Dibang River 3: 107  
 Dibles, Fabián 2: 89  
 Dibugarh River 3: 107  
 Dickens, Charles 4: 78  
 Dickinson, Emily 2: 43  
 Dida people 1: 152  
 Diderot, Denis 4: 9  
 Diederich, B. 2: 162  
 Diego Alvarez (Gough Island) 1: 336  
 Diego Garcia Island 3: 339  
 Diégo-Suarez (Antsiranana) 1: 283, 284  
 Diem (Ngo Dinh Diem) 3: 266  
 Dien Bien Phu 3: 266  
 Diffa 1: 73  
 Dihang River 3: 107  
 Dikhil 1: 113  
 Dilmun (Bahrain) 3: 24  
 Dimar 1: 175  
 Dimboko 1: 152  
 Dimbovita 4: 250  
 Dimlang, Mount 1: 168  
 Dina Moraze (Dina Meshriq) [Mauritius] 1: 290  
 Dinaric Alps 4: 14, 172, 199, 205, 236, 242, 245, 257  
 Dinaric people 4: 232  
 Dinesen, Isak (Karen Blixen) 1: 225, 226-227  
 Dinh dynasty 3: 265  
 Diocletian, Palace of 4: 258  
 Diola-Mandingo people 1: 174  
 Diop, Birago 1: 176  
 Diop, Cheikh Anta 1: 176  
 Diop, David 1: 176  
 Diori, Hamani 1: 74  
 Diouf, Abdou 1: 155, 176  
 Dioula people 1: 147  
 Diourbel 1: 174  
 Diraison, Christine le 3: 312  
 Dire Dawa 1: 110, 111  
 Disneyland 2: 40  
 Disraeli, Benjamin 4: 78  
 District of Columbia (see Washington D.C.)  
 Distrito especial (Colombia) 2: 250  
 Distrito Federal (Brazil) 2: 191  
 Distrito Federal (Mexico) 2: 101, 102  
 Distrito Federal (Venezuela) 2: 207  
 Distrito Nacional (Dominican Republic) 2: 154  
 Dittmar, Johannes 3: 249  
 Diuata Mountains 3: 296  
 Divehi Jumhuriya (see Maldives)  
 Divehi language 3: 120  
 Divo 1: 152  
 Diyala 3: 38  
 Djado oasis 1: 80  
 Djado Plateau 1: 72  
 Djaja, Mount 5: 2  
 Djebel . . . (see substantive word, except as listed below)  
 Djebel bou-Hedma National Park 1: 32  
 Djelfa 1: 13  
 Djem people 1: 212  
 Djenné 1: 67  
 Djerba 1: 33, 34  
 Djerid, Chott of 1: 34  
 Djerma people 1: 72  
 Djibouti (city) 1: 5, 111, 112, 113, 118  
 Djibouti (country) 1: 5, 112-113, 116, 117  
 Djolof Empire 1: 175, 176  
 Djondj Reserve 1: 174  
 Djoué 1: 217  
 Dnepr River 4: 2, 288, 309  
 Dneprodzerzhinsk River 4: 310  
 Dnepropetrovsk 4: 309  
 Dnepropetrovsk River 4: 310  
 Dniester (Dnepr) River 4: 2, 249  
 Dobama Asi-ayone 3: 250  
 Dobruja region 4: 249  
 Dodecanese Islands 4: 14  
 Dodoma 1: 5; 233, 234, 235  
 Dodoma depression 1: 233  
 Doe, Samuel K. 1: 167  
 Dogon people 1: 66, 68, 80  
 Doğu Anadolu 3: 58  
 Dogye 3: 189  
 Doha 3: 6, 51  
 Doi Inthanon (mountain) 3: 257  
 Dolak Island 3: 300  
 Dolj 4: 250  
 Dolomitic Alps 4: 18, 31  
 Dolphin Head 2: 156  
 Dominica 2: 4, 141, 151-152  
 Dominican Republic 2: 4, 153-156, 169-170  
 Dominion of Canada (see Canada)  
 Dominion of New Zealand (see New Zealand)  
 Domitian 4: 25  
 Don River 4: 297, 301  
 Donau National Park 4: 90  
 Donation of Constantine 4: 13  
 Donbass region 4: 284, 302, 310  
 Donets River 4: 308, 309  
 Donetsk 4: 310  
 Dong Nai 3: 263  
 Dong Nai River 3: 261  
 Dong Phrayay Yen 3: 257  
 Dong Song people 3: 265  
 Dong Thap 3: 263  
 Dongola kingdom 1: 78  
 Dongwon 3: 189  
 Dordogne River 4: 65  
 Dorian, Lake 4: 15  
 Dorian people 3: 59; 4: 15, 231  
 Dornod 3: 203  
 Dornogovi 3: 203  
 Dorsal Mountains 1: 31  
 Dortmund 4: 182, 206  
 Dos Passos, John 2: 33  
 Dos Rios, Battle of 2: 150  
 Dosso 1: 73  
 Douala 1: 211, 212  
 Douala people 1: 213  
 Dougabougou 1: 67  
 Dougga 1: 34  
 Douro River 4: 84-85  
 Dover 4: 76  
 Dover, White Cliffs of 4: 95  
 Downtown (Jamaica) 2: 157  
 Doxadiis, Constantinos 3: 125  
 Dra, Wad 1: 26, 35  
 Drake, Francis 2: 159  
 Drake Passage 5: 91, 92, 93  
 Drakensberg (mountain range) 1: 281, 282, 296, 297, 298, 300  
 Drammen 4: 138  
 Dranov Island 4: 257  
 Dransfield, Michael 5: 17  
 Drava (Drau) River 4: 2, 173-174  
 Dravidian languages 3: 100  
 Dravidian peoples 3: 4, 109, 114, 130  
 Dreithe 4: 190  
 Dresden 4: 181, 182  
 Drin River 4: 233, 234  
 Druid religion 4: 81  
 Druk-Yul (see Bhutan)  
 Druze people 3: 42, 47, 48  
 Dzugalski, Erich 5: 94  
 Du Fu 3: 179, 180  
 Duarte (Dominican Republic) 2: 154  
 Duarte, José Napoleón 2: 92  
 Duarte, Pico 2: 153  
 Dubayy 3: 26, 27, 28  
 Dubček, Alexander 4: 179  
 Dublin 4: 4, 79, 80, 81, 95  
 Dubossary 4: 296  
 Dubrovnik 4: 242, 243  
 Ducie Island 5: 38  
 Duero River 4: 2, 89  
 Duff Island 5: 31  
 Dufresne, Marion 5: 27  
 Duho 1: 180  
 Durburg 4: 182, 206  
 Dukhan 3: 51  
 Dulce, Gulf of 2: 88  
 Duluth 2: 120  
 Dumont d'Urville, Jules-Sébastien-César 1: 290; 3: 258; 5: 19, 38, 94  
 Dumyat 1: 18  
 Dunaújváros 4: 255  
 Dunav River (see Danube River)  
 Dundgoví 3: 203  
 Dunedin 5: 24, 25  
 Dunkirk 4: 64, 69  
 Durance River 4: 65  
 Durango 2: 102  
 Durazno 2: 306  
 Durazno, Cuchilla Grande del 2: 305  
 Durban 1: 296, 297, 298, 299, 310  
 D'Urban, Benjamin 1: 310  
 Durmitor Mountain 4: 245  
 Durmitor National Park 4: 245  
 Durani dynasty 3: 16  
 Dürrenmatt, Friedrich 4: 204  
 Durrës 4: 234, 235  
 Duruz, Jabal ad- 3: 29  
 D'Urville Island 5: 23  
 Dusan people 3: 307  
 Dushanbe 4: 4, 305, 306  
 Düsseldorf 4: 182, 206  
 Dutch East India Company 2: 9, 302, 304, 310, 339; 4: 190  
 Dutch East Indies 3: 9  
 Dutch Guiana (see Suriname (country))  
 Dutch language 2: 339  
 Dutch people 1: 274, 290, 297, 298, 299, 300; 3: 9, 302, 303, 304-305  
 Dutch West India Company 2: 339  
 Duvalier, François 2: 162  
 Duvalier, Jean-Claude 2: 162  
 Dvaravati kingdom 3: 260  
 Dvina River 4: 2, 134, 288  
 Dwight, Timothy 2: 7  
 Dzaoudzi 1: 336  
 Dravhan 3: 203  
 Dzemavo 1: 180  
 Dzerzhinsky, Felix 4: 313  
 Dzhalal-Abad 4: 294  
 Dzhanbul 4: 292  
 D'hezkegazan 4: 292  
 Dzhrizak 4: 312  
 Drungaria Basin 3: 170  
 Drungarian Ala Tau Range 4: 291  
 E  
 Earth 5: 125-148, 171  
 Earthquake Engineering Research Institute 2: 26  
 East Africa, German 1: 209, 236  
 East Africa, Italian 1: 112, 116  
 East Antarctica 5: 91, 94  
 East Berbice-Corentyne 2: 200  
 East Caricos Island 2: 337  
 East-Central Lowlands (Australia) 5: 8  
 East China Sea 3: 167, 206  
 East Falkland Island 2: 336  
 East Flanders 4: 61  
 East Germany 4: 182, 183, 184 (see also Germany)  
 East India Company, British 3: 9, 104, 117, 310, 312  
 East India Company, Dutch 2: 9, 302, 304, 310, 339; 4: 190  
 East India Company, French 3: 9  
 East Indies 3: 9, 293  
 East London (South Africa) 1: 298, 299  
 East Pakistan 3: 102, 104, 127  
 East Prussia 4: 171, 182  
 East Siberian Sea 4: 313  
 East Timor 3: 302  
 Easter Island 2: 242; 5: 39, 44  
 Easter Rebellion 4: 82  
 Eastern Africa 1: 105-118, 209, 236, 351  
 Eastern (Arabian) Desert (see also Sahara Desert) 1: 17, 19  
 Eastern Marches 4: 175-176  
 Eastern Orthodoxy 3: 26; 4: 32, 126, 128, 135, 233, 236, 238, 241, 245, 246, 250, 252, 258, 290, 314 (see also Greek Orthodoxy; Russian Orthodox Church)  
 Eastern Siberian Sea 5: 85, 88  
 Eastern Sudan region 1: 76  
 Eastern Uplands (Australia) 5: 8  
 Esauripik-New Guinea Rise 5: 22  
 Ebba 3: 55  
 Ebré Lagoon 1: 152  
 Ebro Depression 4: 89  
 Ebro River 4: 2, 89  
 EC (see European Community)  
 Ecbatana (Hamadan) 3: 32, 33, 345  
 Ech-Chôliff 1: 13  
 Echeverría, Esteban 2: 298  
 Echeverría, Luis 2: 107  
 Economic Community of the Central American Isthmus 2: 84  
 Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) 1: 179  
 Ecuador 2: 4, 8, 82, 84, 164, 210, 212, 237, 251, 252-256, 263; 5: 97, 164  
 Eddin, Khair 1: 30  
 Edéa 1: 212  
 Edge Island 5: 87  
 Edict of Constantine 1: 20  
 Edinburgh 4: 72, 73, 76  
 Edmonton 2: 13, 15, 17, 120  
 Edo 1: 169; 3: 193, 199 (see also Tokyo)  
 Edo people 1: 169  
 Edremit 3: 343  
 Edward, Lake 1: 105, 237  
 Edward VI, king of England 4: 77  
 Eesti Vabariik (see Estonia)  
 Effaté Island 5: 36, 37  
 EFTA (European Free Trade Association) 4: 122  
 Eflatiotis, A. 4: 17  
 Egeadi Islands 4: 19  
 Egede, Hans 5: 89  
 Egmont, Mount 5: 2, 24  
 Egypt 1: 5, 9-10, 16-21, 35, 36, 107, 336; 3: 347; 5: 148  
 Egypt, possessions in Asia 3: 6, 340  
 Egyptian people 1: 4, 7, 9, 34, 78, 107; 3: 20, 26, 43, 44, 48, 51, 53, 55, 347  
 Elime 3: 192  
 1812, War of (Second War of Independence, U.S.) 2: 41  
 Eilat 3: 41  
 Eilean Donan Castle 4: 95  
 Eindhoven 4: 190  
 Éire (see Ireland)  
 Fismitté geophysical station 5: 90  
 Eixo Monumental 2: 212  
 Ektastur Basin 4: 292, 302  
 Ekwenzi, Ciprian 1: 172  
 El, El- . . . (see substantive word, except as listed below)  
 El Cajas region 2: 253  
 El César 2: 250  
 El Chico National Park 2: 101  
 El Faiyum 1: 18  
 El Faiyum depression 1: 17, 18  
 El Fasher 1: 75  
 El Kef 1: 33  
 El Mahalla el Kuhra 1: 18  
 El-Mishrifé 3: 55  
 El Naranjo Tropical Garden 2: 167  
 El Oro 2: 254  
 El Pao 2: 208  
 El Paraiso 2: 97  
 El Progreso 2: 94  
 El Salvador 2: 4, 8, 84, 90-92, 115, 116  
 El Seibo 2: 154  
 El Zamuro redoubt 2: 212  
 Elandsberg Reserve 1: 297  
 ELAS (National Liberation Army) [Greece] 4: 17  
 Elba 4: 22, 26  
 Elbasan 4: 235  
 Elbasan-Berat 4: 234  
 Elbe River 4: 2, 5, 177, 184



- Ibert Mount 2: 25-46  
 Iblag 4: 194  
 Ibrus Mount 4: 289  
 Ibruz Mountains 3: 2 31 32  
 Iephath Mountains 3: 250 251  
 Ieuthera Island 2: 143 144  
 Igion Mount 1: 223  
 Igon Mountains 1: 207 217 238  
 Ihot 1 5 2: 13  
 Elizabeth I queen of England 4: 9 77  
 Ilacuria Ignacio 2: 92  
 Ilendi 4: 14  
 Illesmere Island 2: 13 5: 85 86 88 90  
 Illice Islands 5: 20 36 (see also Tuvatu)  
 Ilmiki Dimokratta (see Greece)  
 Ilsworth Mountains 5: 91  
 Imanshahi 3: 345  
 Imbalse del Salto Grande 2: 305  
 Imbalse Itapu 2: 301  
 Imbarras Portage 2: 15  
 Imerald Island 2: 141 336 337  
 Imerson Ralph Waldo 2: 42  
 Imesa 3: 54 55  
 Imi Koussi (volcano) 1: 62  
 Imila Romagna 4: 21  
 Impire State Building 2: 33 47  
 Imisland 4: 206  
 Incantada Cerro de la 2: 115  
 Incarnacion 2: 300  
 Incarnacion Church of the (Ascension) 2: 301 302  
 Inclosure Act (England) 4: 77  
 Incuento 2: 87  
 Incyclapedisis 4: 9 70  
 Indara Guillermo 2: 114  
 Inga 5: 29  
 Engels Friedrich 4: 10 186  
 Inglad 4: 5 72 73 73 95 96 (see also Great Britain)  
 English Channel 4: 72  
 English language 2: 9 16 17 32 87 109 143 145 152 160 166 335 336 4: 73  
 Inwetok Atoll 5: 21  
 Enlightenment 2: 41 4: 75 125 144 204 304  
 Enedi Mount 1: 62  
 Enich region 1: 63  
 Enns River 4: 173  
 Enriquello Lake 2: 153  
 Entebbe 1: 238  
 Entotto Mountains 1: 118  
 Entre Rios 2: 2 295  
 Enugu 1: 169  
 Enugu Basin 1: 171  
 EO C (European Organization for Economic Cooperation) 4: 6  
 EOKA (National Organization for the Cypriot Struggle) 3: 26  
 Eohan Islands 4: 19 31 5: 174  
 Eolian people 3: 59  
 Ephesus Council of 3: 26 59  
 Epi 5: 37  
 Epirus 4: 17  
 Epskopi Bay 3: 25  
 Equador 5: 38  
 Equateur region (Uganda) 1: 243  
 Equatoria (Sudan) 1: 76  
 Equatorial Africa 1: 207 248  
 Equatorial Africa French 1: 64 215 218 220 248 335  
 Equatorial Guinea 1: 5 221 222 337  
 Er Rachidia 1: 28  
 Er Roseires Dam 1: 77  
 Era Boto 1: 213  
 Erasmus 4: 62  
 Eratosthenes of Cyrene 5: 129  
 Ercilla y Zúñiga Alonso de 2: 246  
 Ercenet 3: 203  
 Erabus Mount 5: 100  
 Erg d'Admir 1: 35  
 Eric IX king of Sweden 4: 130  
 Erik the Red 2: 11  
 Ericson Freyd 2: 11  
 Ericson Leif 2: 11  
 Ericson Thovald 2: 11  
 Erie Lake 2: 13 45  
 Erik dynasty 4: 144  
 Erik the Red 5: 88 89  
 Eritrea 1: 4 5 8 105 106 107 108 109 112 118 4: 27  
 Eritrean People's Liberation Front 1: 107  
 Erne River 4: 80  
 Erongolberg (mountain) 1: 310  
 Erugal Mount 4: 79  
 Ershad Hossain Mohammad 3: 104  
 Erzurum 3: 57  
 Es Saouma 1: 28  
 Es Senata 1: 28  
 Esbjerg 4: 124  
 Escalides Les 4: 59  
 Escambray 2: 149  
 Escambray Sierra del 2: 147  
 Escala Minera 2: 198  
 Escorial 4: 94  
 Escountla (city) 2: 91  
 Escountla (department) 2: 94  
 Estahan 3: 32 33 34 35 46 66  
 Estira people 1: 219  
 Estiqi Muhammad Riza 3: 36  
 Eskimo people (see Inuit people)  
 Esmeraldas 2: 254  
 Esmeraldas River 2: 253  
 Estote Islands Park 1: 151  
 Estuillat 2: 154  
 Espargos 1: 149 150  
 Espírito Santo (Brazil) 2: 191 193 195 196  
 Espíritu Santo (Honduras) 2: 96  
 Espíritu Santo Island (Vanuatu) 5: 36  
 Espoo 4: 129  
 Esquimos River 2: 88  
 Essauima 1: 29  
 Essen 4: 182 206  
 Essequibo Islands/West Demerara 2: 200  
 Essequibo River 2: 199 200  
 Estados Isla de los 2: 291  
 Estados Unidos de Mexicanos (see Mexico)  
 Esteli 2: 109  
 Estenssoro Victor Paz 2: 241  
 Estoma 4: 1 121 122 126 127 145 146  
 Estonia Autonomous Democratic Republic of 4: 177  
 Estonian Cultural Society 4: 127  
 Estonian language 4: 122 145  
 Estonian people 4: 176  
 Estrela Serra da (Portugal) 4: 84  
 Estrella Mountain (Spain) 4: 59  
 Estramadura 4: 90  
 Estuare 1: 220  
 Et Lari 1: 13  
 ETA (Basque independence movement) 4: 94  
 Etania 4: 17  
 Ethiopia 1: 2 5 8 61 90 105 10 108 112 116 117 118 3: 351 4: 77 5: 148  
 Ethiopian kingdom of 1: 78 107 111 116  
 Ethiopian people 1: 228 229  
 Ethiopian Plateau 1: 75 105 106 108 109 110 112 113 114 117 224  
 Ethiopian region 5: 147  
 Ethiopian people 1: 4 106  
 Etina Mount 4: 19 31 5: 172  
 Etosha National Park 1: 294  
 Etruscans 4: 20 24 32  
 Eua Island 5: 34  
 Euboea 4: 14 17  
 Euphrates River 3: 37 53 54 57 64 65  
 Eurasia 1: 1 3: 1 2 284-314  
 Eurasia North Central 4: 4  
 Euripides 4: 7  
 Europa Peaks 4: 88 89  
 Europe 4: 1 314 2 4 5: 85 131  
 Europe Atlantic 4: 4 57 96  
 Europe Central 4: 2 4 6 171 206  
 Europe Council of 4: 12  
 Europe Mediterranean 4: 2 4 11 32  
 European Arctic Islands 5: 86 87  
 European Community (EC) 4: 6 7 10 12 17 22 57 58 67 76 78 80 82 83 87 91 96 122 125 140 171 195 203 236 244 248 5: 159  
 European Free Trade Association (EFTA) 4: 122  
 European Organization for Economic Cooperation (OECD) 4: 6  
 Europeans 1: 32 116 159 213 220 5: 3 5 6 10 11 12 18 23 25 33 38 39  
 Europic peoples 2: 3 3: 4 5  
 Europic 4: 191  
 Euskadi 4: 90  
 Evangelical Lutheran Church 4: 142  
 Evans J D 4: 28  
 Evensk District 4: 299  
 Everest Mount 3: 121 131  
 Everglades National Park 2: 78 46  
 Everton 2: 201  
 Evreyskaya 4: 314  
 Ewarton 2: 158  
 Ewe people 1: 157 179 180  
 Existentialism 4: 63  
 Extremadura 4: 90  
 Exuma Island 2: 143  
 Exxon 2: 37  
 Eyadéma Gasssembé 1: 150  
 Eyck Hubert 4: 191  
 Eyck Jan van 4: 191  
 Eyck Lake 5: 8  
 Ezma king of Aksum 1: 78 111  
**E**  
 Fa Neum 3: 256  
 Fabietti Ugo 3: 21 22  
 Facchini Fiorenzo 4: 3  
 Fada N'Gourma 1: 148  
 Fahd king of Saudi Arabia 3: 72  
 Fahud 3: 49  
 Faidherbe General 1: 68 71 176  
 Fairbanks 5: 99  
 Faisal 3: 22 40 55  
 Faisalabad 3: 125  
 Falasha people 1: 105 109  
 Falcon 2: 207 208  
 Falcon Sierra de 2: 205 211  
 Falémé 1: 175  
 Falem River 1: 66 173  
 Faliscan people 4: 24  
 Faliside 1: 118  
 Falkland Islands 2: 291 336 5: 91  
 Falklands War 2: 299  
 Fall Line 2: 25  
 Fallaci Oriana 3: 48  
 Fallas Carlos Luis 2: 89  
 Falmouth 2: 157  
 False Bay 1: 298  
 Famagusta 3: 25 26  
 Fang 3: 260  
 Fang people 1: 219 220 221 222  
 Fangautau Atoll 5: 40  
 Fanon Frantz 1: 277  
 FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization) 5: 156  
 Far East 3: 167-212, 2: 1  
 Farafra oasis 1: 18  
 Farah 3: 11  
 Faro 4: 84  
 Faro National Park 1: 211  
 Faroe Islands 4: 123 124  
 Farquhar Archipelago 1: 248  
 Fars 3: 33  
 Farsi language (see Persian language)  
 Faruk 1: 78  
 Farukolufushi 3: 120  
 Faryab 3: 14  
 Fasher 11 1: 75  
 Fatah 1: 23  
 Fataka Island 5: 31  
 Fataha River 1: 160  
 Fatch 3: 27  
 Fattick 1: 174  
 Fatimid dynasty 1: 25  
 Fatimid people 1: 20  
 Fatah Hiva Island 5: 40  
 Faw al 3: 39  
 Faylakh Island 3: 44  
 Faysal 3: 22 40 55  
 Faza National Park 1: 179  
 Faza Mountains 1: 156 179  
 Fender 1: 69 71  
 Fender 4: 67  
 Federal Emergency Management Agency 2: 26  
 Federal Geological Survey 2: 26  
 Federal Republic of Germany (see Germany, West Germany)  
 Federal Republic of Nigeria (see Nigeria)  
 Federalist Party (U.S.) 2: 41  
 Federated States of Micronesia (see Micronesia)  
 Federation of Central Africa 1: 304 308  
 Federation of Malaya 3: 310  
 Federation of Malaysia 3: 310 312  
 Federativna Republika Jugoslavija (see Yugoslavia)  
 Federico of Toledo 2: 164  
 Federiksted 2: 340  
 Fedjadj Chott el 1: 31  
 Fejer 4: 254  
 Felipe people 1: 149  
 Fennidsmarka National Park 4: 138  
 Fengshan 3: 207  
 Fenni people 4: 122  
 Ferdinand I Holy Roman Emperor 4: 176 252  
 Ferdinand I king of Bulgaria 4: 241  
 Ferdinand II king of Spain 4: 93  
 Ferdinand VI king of Spain 4: 94  
 Fergana 4: 312  
 Fergana Valley 4: 306  
 Ferkessédougou 1: 153 153  
 Ferlo region 1: 174  
 Ferlo River 1: 173  
 Fernandez de Izardi Jose Joaquin 2: 106  
 Fernandez de Oviedo Gonzalo 2: 155  
 Fernández de Quirós Pedro 5: 40  
 Fernando Poo Island 1: 221 222 230 337  
 Fertile Crescent 3: 11 52  
 Fes 1: 77 28 29 30  
 Fessenheim 4: 68  
 Fez 1: 7  
 Fezzan region 1: 22 24  
 Fianarantsoa 1: 284  
 Fiat 4: 22  
 Fichte Johann Gottlieb 4: 186  
 Fier 4: 235  
 Fingui 1: 28  
 Figueres Ferrer Jose 2: 89  
 Fiji 5: 3 4 18 19 42  
 Fijian language 5: 19  
 Fijian people 5: 18 19  
 Fichner Willem 5: 94  
 Filla Island 4: 27  
 Filipino (Filipino) language 3: 296  
 Filipino people 3: 20 314 5: 22  
 Fine Arts Palace (Santo Domingo) 2: 170  
 Finisterre Cape 4: 58  
 Finland 4: 4 121 127-130 145 146 5: 97  
 Finland, Church of 4: 128  
 Finnish language 4: 122 130 145  
 Finnmark 4: 138  
 Finno-Ugric languages 4: 128 138 253  
 Finno-Ugric people 4: 122 127 130 135 303  
 Finns 4: 128 138 297  
 Fiordland National Park 5: 25  
 Firdusi 3: 36  
 Firestone Plantations Company 1: 166 167  
 First National Development Plan (Portugal) 4: 86  
 First Triumvirate 4: 24  
 Fischer von Erlach Johann Bernhard 4: 206  
 Fito Mount 5: 33  
 Fittu Lake 1: 67  
 Fitz Roy Mountain 2: 291 309  
 Fitzgerald 2: 15  
 Fitzgerald Francis Scott 2: 43  
 FitzGerald Robert 5: 16  
 Flagler Henry 2: 17  
 Flanders 4: 9 60 62 190  
 Flanders Faso 4: 61  
 Flanders West 4: 61  
 FICSI (Somali Coast Liberation Front) 1: 113  
 Fievola 4: 190  
 FILING (Front for the Struggle for National Independence of Guinea) 1: 163  
 FIN (National Liberation Front) (Algeria) 1: 14 15 16  
 Florence 4: 19 21 23 26 32  
 Flores 2: 306  
 Flores Island 3: 300  
 Flores Sea 3: 300  
 Florida (U.S.) 2: 2 9 10 78 31 35 36 37 38 40 11 46 47 85  
 Florida (Uruguay) 2: 306  
 Florida East Coast Railway 2: 17  
 Flv River 5: 29  
 FNLV (National Front for the Liberation of Angola) 1: 777  
 Fodda Kevia 1: 162  
 Fodkwan 1: 77  
 Foglio A 1: 230  
 Fogo Island 1: 149  
 Fois Laimly 4: 59  
 Folkung dynasty 4: 144  
 Fomboni 1: 280  
 Fongalale 5: 4 35 36  
 Fonseca Gull of 2: 96 97 108  
 Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) 5: 156  
 Forbidden City 3: 173 174 180 210 (see also Beijing)  
 Ford Gerald 2: 44  
 Ford Guillermo 2: 114  
 Ford Motor Company 2: 38  
 Foreign Ministry (Brazil) 2: 212  
 Foreign Ministry (Mexico City) 2: 116  
 Forel Mount 5: 86  
 Fomichi Carlo 3: 109  
 Formosa (see Taiwan)  
 Formosa (Argentina) 2: 295  
 Formoso (Equatorial Guinea) 1: 222  
 Fort Chippewa 2: 15  
 Fort Christian 2: 340  
 Fort Portal 1: 237  
 Fort Victoria 1: 306  
 Fortaleza 2: 191  
 Fort Archambault 1: 62 63 64  
 Fort de France 2: 170 338  
 Fort-Gouraud 1: 80  
 Fouth, Firth of 4: 72  
 Fort Lumy (see Ndjamena)  
 Fortune Mount 2: 165  
 Forty Columns Palace of 3: 34  
 Foscolo Niccolò 4: 12 26  
 Fouban 1: 212 213  
 Fournaise Piton de la 1: 335

- Fouta Djallon Mountains 1: 66  
143 160 161, 163 173,  
176–177 181  
Foyle Lough 4: 72  
FPLPGA (Popular Front for the  
Liberation of Oman and the  
Arabian Gulf) 3: 50  
France 2: 22 41 47 337–339  
4: 4 6 7 8 9 12 17, 26  
27, 58 63 70 78, 83 95,  
96 172 5: 96 97 167  
France possessions in the  
Americas 2: 4  
Franceville 1: 219 220  
Franche Comte 4: 66  
Francis I, king of France 4: 67  
Francisco Morazan 2: 97  
Francistown 1: 278 279  
Franco Francisco 4: 10 91, 94  
Franco African Union 1: 335  
Franconian Forest 4: 180  
Francoman Jura 4: 180  
Frank, Anne 4: 192  
Frankfurt am Main 4: 181 182  
Franklin Benjamin 2: 41  
Franklin John 5: 89  
Franks 4: 4 8 20 25 62 69  
189  
Franz Ferdinand, archduke of  
Austria 4: 176 236 247  
Franz Josef Land 5: 85 86 87  
89  
Franz Josef, emperor of Austria  
4: 176  
Fraser River 2: 13  
Frey Bentos 2: 307  
Frederic Louis 3: 198 199  
Frederick I Barbarossa, Holy  
Roman emperor 4: 25  
Frederick I, king of Prussia  
4: 186 206  
Frederick III, Holy Roman  
emperor 4: 175 176  
Frederick IX, king of Denmark  
4: 125  
Free French 1: 715  
Freeport 2: 143 144 170  
Free town, L. S. 176 177 178  
157  
Fier, Eduardo 2: 744  
Fier Montali y Fidoado 2: 247  
Ferre, Ricardo Jaime 2: 241  
FRELIMO (Front for the  
Liberation of Mozambique)  
1: 294  
Frimantle 5: 14  
French and Indian War 2: 41  
French Canadian people 2: 16  
17  
French Community 1: 74 148  
153 167 286 335  
French Congo 1: 220  
French East India Company  
3: 9  
French Equatorial Africa 1: 64  
715 218 220 248 335  
French Guiana 2: 211 337 338  
French Indochina 3: 253 256  
265  
French language 2: 16 17 160  
161 4: 202  
French Overseas Territories  
1: 148 5: 38, 39  
French people 1: 15 16 30 34  
64 65 213 285 286, 289  
290 3: 9, 208 265 266  
4: 20  
French Polynesia 5: 3 39 40  
French possessions in Africa  
1: 5 335 336  
French possessions in Oceania  
5: 4, 38 39 40  
French Revolution 2: 10  
4: 9 10 70 204  
French Somali Coast 1: 113  
French Somaliland 1: 118  
French Sudan (see Mali)  
French Territory of the Affairs  
and Isas 1: 113  
French Union 1: 71, 216 218
- French West Africa 1: 71, 74  
146 153 162 164 176 335  
Frente Democrático Nacional  
(Peru) 2: 262  
Frente Farabundo Martí 2: 92  
Frente Sandinista de Liberación  
Nacional (Nicaragua) 2: 98  
111  
Freud Sigmund 4: 176  
Frey, Gilberto 2: 199  
Fria 1: 162 182  
Friboing 4: 202  
Friedrich Wilhelm I, king of  
Prussia 4: 206  
Friendly Islands 5: 34 35  
Friendship pipeline 4: 288 289  
Friesland 4: 190  
Frisch Max 4: 204  
Frisians 4: 189  
Fruhi 4: 19 21  
Frobenius Leo 1: 68  
Frohsen Martin 5: 89  
Front de Liberation Nationale  
(FROLINA) [Chad] 1: 65  
Front for the Liberation of  
Mozambique (FRELIMO)  
1: 293  
Front for the Struggle for  
National Independence of  
Guinea (FNLIG) 1: 163  
Frostensick, Ingrid 4: 138  
Fruiz 4: 4 295 294  
Furka Gota National Park  
4: 245  
Fuad I, king of Egypt 1: 20 75  
Fuad II, king of Egypt 1: 78  
Fuentes Carlos 2: 107  
Fuerte Ventura Island 1: 338  
Fupavah 3: 26 27 28  
Fup Mount 3: 191 209  
Furjan 3: 172 175  
Furman, Alberto 2: 262  
Furwana family 3: 198  
Fukur 3: 192  
Fukuoka 3: 192 197  
Fukushima 3: 192  
Fulbe people 1: 63 66 68 70  
72 73 74 154 161 162  
169 172 174 182 211 213  
Fulahiri Atoll 5: 36  
Fulan kingdom 3: 252  
Funchal 1: 337  
Fung people 1: 78  
Furstentum Liechtenstein (see  
Liechtenstein)  
Furi people (see Bahiru  
people)  
Futuna Islands 5: 10  
Fuzhou 3: 351  
Fyn 4: 124
- G**  
G7 (Group of Seven) 5: 167  
Ga Adangme people 1: 157  
Gables 1: 32 33  
Gables Gull of 1: 31 32 33  
Gabor 1: 5 207 216 217 218  
219 220 248 335 5: 164  
Gabor River 1: 219  
Gaborone 1: 5 277 78 279  
Gabrovo 4: 239  
Gabu Hills 1: 163  
Gaelic language 4: 79 81  
Galsa 1: 32 33 34  
Gagnoa 1: 152  
Gai Lan Kon Tum 3: 263  
Gail River 4: 174  
Gailtaler Alps 4: 173  
Gaius Octavius 4: 24 25  
Gairuzna Kals 4: 134  
Gal Oya National Park 3: 128  
Galana River 1: 224  
Galapagos Archipelago 2: 253  
254, 263  
Galati 4: 250 251 252  
Galdan 4: 294  
Galeano Eduardo 2: 256  
Galgudud 1: 115  
Galibi reserve 2: 202  
Galicia 4: 90 96 196 303 310  
Galician people 4: 91  
Gahčua National Park 4: 248
- Gahlee 3: 42 43  
Gahler Gahlee 4: 9 26 5: 125  
Galla Lake 1: 108  
Galla people 1: 109 115 116  
Galla trench 1: 108, 109 111  
112 114 117  
Gallavresi Lucilla 2: 204  
Gallagos Romulo 2: 210  
Gallia A. 3: 1  
Gallieni General Joseph Simon  
1: 286  
Gallikore River 4: 15  
Gallivare 4: 143  
Gallvaz Juan Manuel 2: 98  
Galveston Bay 2: 47  
Galway 4: 80  
Gama Vasco da 1: 176 274  
292 4: 8 87  
Gambia 1: 5 144 151 155  
181 336  
Gambia River 1: 154 155 160  
173, 181  
Gambier Islands 5: 40  
Gambou Lake 2: 112  
Gam Island 3: 120  
Gama Prayattin Bangladesh  
(see Bangladesh)  
Ganata (see Ghana)  
Gandak River 3: 121  
Gandaki 3: 122  
Gandhi Indira 3: 119  
Gandhi Mohandas  
Karamchand (Mahatma)  
3: 112 117 118  
Gandhi Rajiv 3: 119  
Gandolfo Castle 4: 13  
Gancu Sheku 3: 48  
Gang of Four 3: 182  
Ganges River 3: 3 101 103  
107 108 114 121 131 134  
Gangetic Plain (see  
Indo Gangetic Plain)  
Gansu 3: 172 349  
Ganyic 1: 145  
Ganzoungou 1: 147  
Gao 1: 66 67 74  
Gaul region 1: 162  
Garachikol Natural Reserve  
1: 32  
Garapan 5: 40  
Garay Juan de 2: 297  
Garcia Alan 2: 267  
Garcia Alexio 2: 303  
Garcia Lorca Federico 4: 91  
Garcia Marquez Gabriel  
2: 251 252  
Garda Lake 4: 2 18  
Garde P. 4: 236  
Garcet Denon 1: 11  
Gargmo Moni 4: 19  
Gargma del Diablo 2: 309  
Garibaldi Giuseppe 2: 308  
4: 27  
Garmisch Partenkirchen 4: 181  
Garran J. Incon Xavier 2: 22  
Garonne River 4: 2 65  
Garoua 1: 717  
Garreau Joel 2: 10  
Garsin 3: 19  
Gaspé Philippe Aubert de 2: 22  
Gate of the Sun 2: 264  
Gatun Lake 2: 112  
Gaudi Antonio 4: 32  
Gaugamela Plain 3: 345  
Gaugaz 4: 296  
Gaul 4: 83  
Gaul Caesar 4: 24  
Gauls 4: 20 24 69  
Gautama Siddhartha 3: 123  
133 134 248  
Gavrilchong 4: 143  
Gaxotte Pierre 4: 70  
Gaya 1: 74  
Gayoom Maumoun Abdul  
3: 120  
Gaza (Mozambique) 1: 291  
Gaza Strip 3: 42 44 340  
Gazankulu people 1: 297  
Gaziantep 3: 57 58  
Gazi 4: 312  
Ghariga 1: 166  
Gbe people 1: 166  
Gbeza 1: 162  
Gdansk 4: 193 194 195
- Gdynia 4: 194 195  
Geba River 1: 163  
Gebel Onk 1: 14  
Gedi 1: 226 248  
Gediminas Castle of 4: 146  
Gediminas, grand duke of  
Lithuania 4: 136 289  
Gedo 1: 115  
Gedrota (see Baluchistan)  
Gedlong 5: 12 14  
Gedong Gottedred Hage 1: 295  
Gelderland 4: 190  
Gemu Gofa 1: 110  
General Electric 2: 37  
General Motors 2: 37 48  
General Union of Tunisian  
Workers (UGTT) 1: 34  
Geneva 4: 202 203  
Geneva Lake 4: 2 65  
Genghis Khan 3: 16 204  
4: 292 314  
Genicot Leopold 4: 8  
Genoa 4: 8 19 20 21 22 23  
26  
George Lake (Uganda) 1: 247  
George of Glucksburg 4: 17  
Georgetown (Ascension Island)  
1: 336  
Georgetown (Cayman Islands)  
2: 336  
Georgetown (Guyana) 2: 199  
200 201  
Georgia (Russia) 4: 4 289 290  
Georgi (U.S.) 2: 31 36 38  
Gepidae people 4: 256  
Gerlachsky Park 4: 197 205  
German Confederation 4: 10  
83 176 188  
German Democratic Republic  
4: 182 183 187 (see also  
East Germany, Germany)  
German East Africa 1: 209 236  
German East Prussia 4: 171  
German language 4: 171 172  
202  
German New Guinea 5: 3  
German West Africa 1: 229  
Germanic people 1: 713 246  
244 4: 69 171 117 114  
179 195 250 253 253  
German, 4: 3 4 7 8 9 11  
12 27 171 173 180 187  
182 183 205 206 248  
304 5: 38 97 16  
Gerstheim George 2: 43  
Geszta region 1: 76 77  
Gezo 1: 146  
Ghaba 3: 49  
Ghadamis 1: 73  
Ghaghgh River 3: 171  
Ghana 1: 5 144 156 159 180  
181  
Ghana Empire 1: 7 68 80 153  
159 167 175 181  
Ghanzi 1: 278  
Ghibb Plain 1: 76  
Ghabriva 1: 18  
Ghardana 1: 13  
Ghayvan 1: 73  
Ghassand dynasty 3: 21  
Ghats 3: 107 108 113  
Ghawar oil field 3: 20  
Ghazni 3: 14 16 33  
Gheg language 4: 233  
Ghent 4: 61, 62  
Gheorghiu Dej Gheorghiu  
4: 251 257  
Ghibellines 4: 25  
Ghor 3: 14  
Ghulam Ishaq Khan 3: 127  
Ghurid sovereigns 3: 116  
Gua Long 3: 265  
Gumi Mountains 4: 177  
Gunt Causeway 4: 79  
Gibellina 5: 172  
Gibraltar 4: 58  
Gibraltar Rock of 4: 12  
Gibraltar Strait of 1: 1 4: 58  
5: 145  
Gibson Desert 5: 8  
Gierek Edward 4: 196  
Gifu 3: 192  
Gikongoro 1: 228  
Gilan 3: 33
- Gilbert Thomas 5: 20  
Gilbert and Ellice Islands  
Colonies 5: 36  
Gilbert Islands 5: 3 19, 20  
Gill Kebir Plateau 1: 17  
Gilt River 3: 124  
Gimie Mount 2: 165  
Ginsberg Allen 2: 43 44  
Ginza 3: 210  
Gippaland 5: 14  
Girard Henri Honoré 1: 15  
Gisborne 5: 25  
Giscard d'Estaing Valéry 4: 70  
Gisenyi 1: 228 229  
Gitarana 1: 228 229  
Gitega 1: 209 248  
Gurgun 4: 250 251 252  
Giza 1: 18 36  
Gizo 5: 31  
Gladstone William 4: 78  
Glana River 4: 138  
Glarus 4: 202  
Glasgow 4: 73 76  
Glazov Nathan 2: 29 30  
Glomp forest 4: 206  
Gluu River 4: 242  
Glitterind 4: 137  
Glonenses Illes 1: 336  
Glogna 1: 147  
Glogno 4: 195  
Gosa 1: 293 3: 109 131  
Gosh Island 2: 45  
Gobabis 1: 291  
Gobi Desert 3: 2 170 171 202  
211  
Godavari River 3: 108  
Godhavn 5: 86  
Godthab 5: 86 89  
Goethe Johann Wolfgang von  
4: 180 186  
Gogon Nikolai 4: 295  
Goris 2: 191 192 193 194  
196  
Gorim 1: 109 110 118  
Gorkalp Ziva 3: 60  
Gorku River 3: 57  
Golan Heights 3: 42  
Gold Coast 1: 159 336  
Gold Bull (of 1356) 4: 186  
Golden Gate 2: 47  
Golden Horde (see Mongols)  
Golden Horn 3: 63  
Golden Mosque (Baghdad)  
3: 61  
Golden Pagoda (Shwe Dagon  
Temple) 3: 248 267  
Golden Rock 2: 164  
Golden Temple (Punjab) 3: 133  
Goldoni Carlo 4: 26  
Goldsmith Oliver 2: 22 23  
Gomel 4: 288  
Gomera Island 1: 338  
Gomery Adrien de Gerlache de  
5: 91  
Gomez Diego 1: 150  
Gomez Juan Vicente 2: 207  
210  
Gomez Maximo 2: 150  
Gomulka Wladyslaw 4: 196  
Gonaves 2: 162  
Gonave Gull of 2: 161 170  
Gonave Island 2: 161  
Gonda Mount 1: 117  
Gondar castles of 1: 118  
Gondar 1: 109 110  
Gondwanaland 1: 2 2: 188  
705 5: 91  
Gongora y Argote Luis de  
4: 94  
Gonzaga, Tomas Antonio  
2: 198  
Gonzales Prada Manuel 2: 262  
González Dávila Gil 2: 89  
Gonzalez Marquez Felipe 4: 94  
Good Hope Cape of 1: 3,  
296 298, 2: 197 3: 347  
4: 8  
Gorbachev Mikhail 2: 151  
4: 289 301, 305 309  
Gordmer Nadine 1: 300  
Gordon 3: 345  
Gore Island 1: 176  
Gorgol 1: 70 71  
Gorj 4: 250

- Corky 4: 299, 300  
 Corio-Altai 4: 299  
 Corio-Badakhshan 4: 306  
 Corio 5: 29  
 Gorengosa National Park 1: 291  
 Gorzów 4: 194  
 Gota Canal 4: 141  
 Gotaland 4: 141  
 Gotal people 4: 142  
 Goteborg 4: 141, 142, 143, 146  
 Goteborg Bohus 4: 143  
 Goths 4: 4, 17, 20, 142, 296  
 Gotland 4: 143  
 Gotland Island 4: 143  
 Gotthard massif 4: 201  
 Gough Island 1: 336  
 Gouma 1: 147  
 Gouave 2: 160  
 Govi Altay 3: 203  
 Gowhar Shad Mosque 3: 34  
 Gowon Yakubu 1: 172  
 Goya Francisco 4: 94  
 Gozo 4: 27  
 Grace, Alfred A. 5: 28  
 Graciosa Dios 2: 97  
 Gran Alps 4: 18  
 Granatun Hills 4: 71  
 Gran Canaria Island 1: 338, 5: 173  
 Gran Colombia, Republic of 2: 84, 210, 212, 251, 255  
 Gran Desierto del Pinacate National Park 2: 101  
 Gran Malvinas Isla 2: 336  
 Gran Paradiso (mountain) 4: 15  
 Gran Paradiso National Park 4: 20  
 Gran Piedra National Park 2: 147  
 Gran Pilastro (mountain) 4: 18  
 Gran Sabana massif 2: 700  
 Gran Sasso (mountain group) 4: 19  
 Gran Vile 2: 213  
 Granada (department, Nicaragua) 2: 109  
 Granada (city, Nicaragua) 2: 109, 110  
 Granada (Spain) 4: 89, 93  
 Granada cathedral of 4: 94  
 Grand Bahama Island 2: 143, 144  
 Grand Banks 2: 85  
 Grand Bassa 1: 166  
 Grand Bassam 1: 153  
 Grand Canyon 2: 2, 45, 46  
 Grand Cape Mount 1: 166  
 Grand Cayman Island 2: 336  
 Grand Etang Lake 2: 159  
 Grand Etang National Park 2: 160  
 Grand Gedeh 1: 166  
 Grand Kru 1: 166  
 Grand Turk Island 2: 337  
 Grand Duché de Luxembourg 4: 4, 62, 82, 83  
 Grande Cuchilla 2: 305  
 Grande Anse 2: 162  
 Grande Comore 1: 280  
 Grande Terre 2: 336  
 Grangesberg 4: 143  
 Granicus River 3: 345  
 Gramma 2: 148  
 Grabbunden 4: 172  
 Gravotte River 4: 65  
 Graz 4: 175  
 Great Appalachian Valley 2: 25  
 Great Artesian Basin 5: 8  
 Great Australian Bight 5: 7  
 Great Barrier Island 5: 23  
 Great Barrier Reef 5: 7, 9, 15, 41, 42  
 Great Barriers (ice cliffs) 5: 92  
 Great Basin 2: 25  
 Great Bear Lake 2: 13  
 Great Bermuda 2: 336  
 Great Britain 2: 7, 8, 47, 4, 7, 8, 9, 10, 17, 27, 28, 57, 71, 78, 81, 5: 96, 97, 159, 167 (see also England, United Kingdom)  
 Great Britain possessions in Africa 1: 5, 336-337  
 Great Britain possessions in the Americas 2: 4  
 Great Britain possessions in Asia 3: 6, 339, 340  
 Great Britain possessions in Oceania 5: 4, 38, 39  
 Great Depression (economic) 2: 198  
 Great Depression (Nicaragua) 2: 108, 115  
 Great Divide (see Rocky Mountains)  
 Great Dividing Range 5: 2, 7, 8  
 Great Dorsal mountains 1: 31  
 Great Dyke hills 1: 305, 309  
 Great Escarpment 1: 281, 296, 301  
 Great Flood 2: 21  
 Great Geyser 4: 131  
 Great Himalayas 3: 121 (see also Himalayan Mountains)  
 Great Horde 4: 293  
 Great Lakes (U.S.) 2: 2, 4, 5, 13, 13, 14, 17, 19, 26, 27, 28, 31, 33, 34, 35, 37, 40, 120  
 Great Lakes region (Mongolia) 3: 202  
 Great Lakes region (U.S.) 2: 37, 38, 39, 48  
 Great Miquelon Island 2: 339  
 Great Moravia 4: 179, 195  
 Great Mosque (Tunis) 1: 36  
 Great Northern War 4: 127, 144  
 Great Plains 2: 2, 11, 14, 21, 25, 27, 28, 40, 5: 173  
 Great Rift Valley (see Rift Valley)  
 Great Riaba River 1: 233  
 Great Russians 4: 313  
 Great Salt Lake 2: 7  
 Great Salt Lake Basin 2: 25  
 Great Sandy Desert 5: 8  
 Great Slave Lake 2: 13  
 Great Smoky Mountains 2: 75  
 Great Smoky Mountains National Park 2: 28  
 Great Victoria Desert 5: 8  
 Great Wall of China 3: 178, 209  
 Great Western Plateau (Western Australian Shield) 5: 8  
 Great Zimbabwe 1: 310  
 Greater Antilles (see Antilles, Greater)  
 Grebo people 1: 166  
 Gredos Sierra de 4: 88  
 Greece 4: 4, 7, 10, 11, 12, 14, 17, 21, 32, 242, 5: 97  
 Greek Orthodox 4: 32, 241, 253, 303 (see also Eastern Orthodox)  
 Greek people 3: 25, 26, 48, 58, 127, 317, 4: 70, 24, 78, 93, 233, 235, 241, 311, 5: 3, 129, 130  
 Greely, Adolphus 5: 90  
 Green Cape (see Cape Verde)  
 Green Mountain 1: 336  
 Greenland 2: 12, 13, 15, 21, 46, 4: 122, 5: 85, 86, 88, 89, 90, 99, 100  
 Greenville (Iberia) 1: 166, 167  
 Greenwich 5: 129, 130  
 Gregory VII pope 4: 25  
 Gregory XI 3: 351  
 Greifswald 4: 206  
 Grenada 2: 4, 8, 141, 159, 160, 340  
 Grenadine Archipelago 2: 159, 166  
 Grenoble 4: 64  
 Grenville 2: 160  
 Grey Range 5: 8  
 Grimbun 1: 215  
 Grifos 2: 154  
 Grigori 4: 172, 202  
 Grillparzer Franz 4: 176  
 Grimaldi family 4: 29  
 Grimaldi people 4: 3  
 Grima Sierra de la 2: 96  
 Grinaves Mountain 4: 199  
 Gris Nez 5: 173  
 Gritenga 1: 210  
 Grodno 4: 288  
 Gronde Estuary 4: 65  
 Groningen 4: 190  
 Grootfontein 1: 294  
 Gros Piton (mountain) 2: 165  
 Grosseto 4: 22  
 Grossglockner (mountain) 4: 173  
 Grossherzogtum Luxemburg 4: 4, 62, 82, 83  
 Grossmann 1: 118, Searle 5: 28  
 Grotto Geyser 2: 29  
 Group of Seven (G7) 5: 167  
 Groussiet Rene 3: 5  
 Gruebillier, Ballon de 4: 64  
 Grunitzky, Nicholas 1: 180  
 Guachatos, Cueva de los 2: 249  
 Guadalupe 2: 100, 101, 104, 116  
 Guadalupe Island 5: 31  
 Guadalupe National Park 4: 95  
 Guadalupe River 4: 2, 89  
 Guadalupe Sierra de 4: 92  
 Guadalupe Island (Mexico) 2: 99  
 Guadeloupe 2: 141, 170, 338  
 Guadiana River 4: 85, 89  
 Guama 2: 250  
 Guana 2: 302  
 Guapita Desert 2: 82  
 Guapita Peninsula 2: 205, 219  
 Guam 2: 43, 5: 3, 38, 40  
 Guanabaco Bay 2: 211, 212  
 Guanacaste (Cordillera de) 2: 88  
 Guanacaste province 2: 88  
 Guanajuato 2: 102  
 Guanche people 1: 338  
 Guangdong 3: 172, 175  
 Guangxi 3: 177  
 Guangzhou 3: 171, 172, 175, 176, 180, 181  
 Guantanamo (city) 2: 148  
 Guantanamo (province) 2: 148  
 Guapore Valley 2: 192, 193  
 Guaraní people 2: 301, 303, 304, 310  
 Guadalupe Cape (Ras Asu) 1: 105, 114  
 Guatemala (country) 2: 4, 8, 52, 87, 92, 95, 115, 116, 5: 97  
 Guatemala (department) 2: 94  
 Guatemala, Captaincy General of 2: 89, 92, 95, 98, 110  
 Guatemala City 2: 92, 94, 95  
 Guatuso people 2: 88  
 Guaymas 2: 250  
 Guaymas River 2: 248  
 Guayaquil 2: 253, 256  
 Guayas 2: 254  
 Guadalupe River 4: 123  
 Guadalupe 1: 13, 14  
 Guellun 1: 28  
 Guellun 4: 25  
 Guera 1: 63  
 Guera massif 1: 67  
 Guernica 4: 94  
 Guerrero 2: 102  
 Guere people 1: 161  
 Guevara de la Serna, Ernesto (Che) 2: 169, 241, 308  
 Guey, Lammie 1: 176  
 Guguleto 1: 300  
 Guiana French 2: 211, 337, 338  
 Guiana Highlands 2: 204  
 Guiana (Guayana) Shield 2: 199, 202, 205, 211  
 Guinika 1: 70  
 Guine Lake 1: 69  
 Guingo 1: 152  
 Gupta Lake 2: 90, 93  
 Guin 3: 209  
 Gutten, Nicolas 2: 151  
 Guinea 1: 5, 144, 150, 160, 162, 167, 181, 182, 335, 212, 221, 230, 273, 5: 30  
 Guinea-Bissau 1: 66  
 Guinea-Bissau 1: 5, 144, 150, 163-164  
 Guinean Africa 1: 143  
 Guinean people 1: 149  
 Guinean region 1: 146  
 Guizhou 3: 172  
 Gujarat 3: 109  
 Gujarati language 1: 335  
 Gujranwala 3: 125  
 Gul Bahar 3: 15  
 Gulf Coastal Plain 2: 2  
 Gulf Cooperation Council 3: 28  
 Gulf (province, Papua New Guinea) 5: 29  
 Gulf Stream 2: 19, 4: 3, 79, 132, 133, 5: 86, 87, 145  
 Gulf War 3: 38, 40, 45, 46  
 Gulu 1: 238  
 Gumma 3: 192  
 Gundiemingen 4: 206  
 Gunted 1: 77  
 Guneydogu Anadolu 3: 58  
 Gunnbjørn 5: 86, 88  
 Guonundang (see Kuomintang)  
 Gupta dynasty 3: 103, 115, 123, 260  
 Gurgi Mosque 1: 25  
 Gunkha Empire 3: 105, 123  
 Gunkader Alps 4: 173  
 Guro people 1: 152, 153  
 Gurnani people 1: 117  
 Gurses 4: 292  
 Gurside, Martin 2: 293, 294  
 Gustavus I, king of Sweden 4: 144  
 Gustavus II, king of Sweden 4: 144  
 Gustavus III, king of Sweden 4: 141  
 Gustavus V, king of Sweden 4: 144  
 Gustavus VI Adolphus, king of Sweden 4: 144  
 Gutenberg discommity 5: 142  
 Guticels 4: 205  
 Guthrie, Smith Herbert 5: 25  
 Gutierrez, Joaquin 2: 89  
 Gutland region 4: 83  
 Guyana 2: 1, 2, 1, 81, 83, 158, 199, 201  
 Guzman, Jacobo Arbenz 2: 95, 98  
 Guzman, Martin Luis 2: 107  
 Guzman Blanco Antonio 2: 210  
 Gweru (Gwelo) 1: 306  
 Gyor 4: 254, 255  
 Gyor, Sopron 4: 254  
 Gypsies 4: 128, 236, 218, 250, 253, 295  
 Gysinge 4: 143  
**H**  
 Ha Bac 3: 263  
 Ha Meikaz 3: 12  
 Ha Nam Nini 3: 263  
 Ha Son Binh 3: 263  
 Ha Tuyen 3: 263  
 Ha Zalon 3: 42  
 Haakon II, king of Norway 4: 140  
 Haakon IV, king of Norway 4: 133  
 Haapar Islands 5: 34  
 Habat Ghidri people 1: 116  
 Habre, Hissene 1: 65  
 Habsburg dynasty 4: 8, 175, 176, 179, 206, 236, 252, 256  
 Habsburg Empire 4: 1, 10, 62, 178, 197, 200, 206, 252  
 Habayimana, Juvenal 1: 229  
 Ha Darom 3: 47  
 Hadd 3: 23  
 Haddad Malek 1: 16  
 Hadhramaut 3: 61, 62  
 Hadhramaut kingdom 3: 18  
 Hadiboh 1: 338  
 Hadir al Raysuni, Muhammad 1: 30  
 Hadjar el 1: 14  
 Hadrian 4: 93  
 Hadrian's Wall 4: 8  
 Haedo, Cuchilla de 2: 305  
 Haegu 3: 184  
 Hafnartjörður 4: 132  
 Hafslids 1: 25, 34  
 Hahotee 1: 180  
 Hai Hung 3: 263  
 Haidalla, Mohamed Khouna Ould 1: 71  
 Haifa 3: 42, 43  
 Ha'il 3: 19  
 Haile Selassie 1: 112  
 Haman Island 3: 171  
 Haman 4: 61, 191  
 Harphong 3: 263, 261, 265  
 Haru 2: 4, 43, 84, 141, 153, 161, 163, 170, 340  
 Hajar Mountains al 3: 26, 49  
 Hajdu Bihar 4: 254  
 Hajhir Plateau 1: 338  
 Hajjah 3: 61  
 Hakka people 3: 340  
 Hakluyt, Richard 3: 40  
 Halat people 3: 39  
 Halcon Mount 3: 296  
 Halakala (volcano) 5: 7  
 Half Assini 1: 158  
 Halla, Wadi 1: 75  
 Haldeon the Swarthy 4: 140  
 Hallin Gool 3: 204  
 Halliburton, Thomas Chandler 2: 27  
 Hallfax 2: 13, 15, 170  
 Hall, Basil 3: 186  
 Hall, Charles 5: 90  
 Halland 4: 143  
 Hallstätt culture 4: 76  
 Halmahera Island 3: 300  
 Halmahera Mountains 3: 188  
 Halstatt civilization 4: 175  
 Halmahera Mount 4: 125  
 Halul Atoll 3: 51  
 Hamid 3: 23  
 Hamadan (Chahama) 3: 32, 43, 345  
 Hamah 3: 54  
 Hamar wai Mosque 1: 116  
 Hambeck 3: 189  
 Hamburg 4: 181, 182, 184  
 Hame 4: 129  
 Hamyone 3: 154  
 Hangyong Mountains 3: 183  
 Hangyong 3: 181, 185  
 Hamilton (Australia) 5: 14  
 Hamilton (Bermuda) 2: 336  
 Hamilton (Canada) 2: 15  
 Hamilton (New Zealand) 5: 25  
 Hamitic people 1: 9, 17, 74, 76, 105, 109, 110, 115, 117, 118, 207, 224, 226, 228, 234, 235, 248  
 Hamito-Semitic languages 5: 151  
 Hammadi dynasty 4: 93  
 Hammamet, Gulf of 1: 31, 3  
 Hammerfest 4: 145  
 Hamra al Hamud al (plateau) 1: 22  
 Han dynasty 3: 178, 179, 208, 265, 349  
 Han people 3: 172  
 Han River 3: 187, 188  
 Hanabanta River 2: 147  
 Hanafite Sunni Muslims 3: 14  
 Hangayn Mountains 3: 207  
 Hangzhou 3: 179, 351  
 Hanoi 3: 6, 261, 263, 264, 265  
 Hannover 2: 157  
 Hasegata League 4: 12  
 Hao Atoll 5: 40  
 Haq Zia ul 3: 125, 127  
 Harald I Harfager (Harfager), king of Norway 4: 133, 140  
 Harald V, king of Norway 4: 140  
 Harappa 3: 114  
 Harappa civilization 3: 8, 127  
 Harappa people 3: 8, 127  
 Harar 1: 108, 109  
 Harare 1: 5, 305, 306, 307  
 Hararge 1: 109, 110

- Harbel 1: 167  
 Harbin 3: 171 172  
 Hardangervidda National Park 4: 138  
 Hardy, Thomas 4: 78  
 Hargeisa 1: 115  
 Harghita 4: 250  
 Hari River 3: 301  
 Haringhata River 3: 101  
 Haripunjaya kingdom 3: 260  
 Hariri, Tell 3: 55  
 Harisinha deva 3: 123  
 Harlem 2: 29, 47  
 Harmattan, Saharan 1: 69 147  
 151 160, 163 165 168  
 173 177 179 211  
 Harmonia (see Hormuz Island)  
 Harper 1: 166, 167  
 Harrell, Maiv Ann 5: 8 12 13, 24  
 Harsa, emperor of northern India 3: 103  
 Hartmann, lord of Vaduz 4: 188  
 Hartog, Dirk 5: 16  
 Harvard University 2: 38  
 Haryani 3: 109  
 Harz 4: 184  
 Harz Mountains 4: 205  
 Hasa, al 3: 19 21  
 Hasakah, al 3: 54  
 Hasan, Mir 3: 116  
 Hashemite kingdom 3: 21 29 30 40  
 Hassan, Abdou el 1: 30  
 Hassan I, H 2: 114  
 Hassan II, king of Morocco 1: 30  
 Hassan, Mosque 1: 36  
 Hassid, monarch 1: 30  
 Hastings, Battle of 4: 72 76  
 Hat Yai 3: 258 260  
 Hatch, John 1: 301  
 Hato Mayon 2: 154  
 Hatshepsut, Queen 3: 347  
 Hatti people 3: 59  
 Hatton Plateau 3: 128  
 Hattushash 3: 66  
 Hau Giang 3: 263  
 Hauhangaoroa Mountains 5: 24  
 Hausa kingdom 1: 7 172  
 Hausa people 1: 72 73 74 169 171 172 181 182  
 Hausmann, Georges Eugène, Baron 4: 67  
 Haut Ogooue 1: 220  
 Haut, /aut 1: 243 244  
 Haute-Garonne region 1: 161  
 Haute-Kotto 1: 215  
 Haute-M'Bonou 1: 215  
 Haute-Normandie (Upper Normandy) 4: 66  
 Haute-Saône 1: 215  
 Hauts-Fagnes (Fichtel Nature Park) 4: 60  
 Havina 2: 116 117 148 149 169  
 Havel, Vaclav 4: 179  
 Hawaiian Island 2: 26  
 Hawaiian Islands 2: 24 26 28 31 36, 40 5: 2 3 38 41 42 43 44  
 Hawaii 3: 45  
 Hawai 3: 22 23  
 Hawiye people 1: 116  
 Hawkes Bay 5: 25  
 Hawthorne, Nathaniel 2: 42  
 Hayastani Hanrapetut'yun (see Armenia)  
 Hayes, Isaac 5: 89  
 Hayes Mountains 2: 26  
 Haymarket Riot 2: 43  
 Hazara people 3: 13, 14, 15  
 Hazer 3: 43  
 Health Acts (Great Britain) 4: 73  
 Heard Island 3: 339 5: 91  
 Hebei 3: 172 175  
 Hebridesabawit Yatyopya (see Ethiopia)  
 Hebrew language 3: 44  
 Hebrew people 5: 175  
 Hebrides Islands 4: 57, 71 72  
 Hebrides Shield 4: 2  
 Hebron 3: 29  
 Hecatompylos 3: 345  
 Hedmark 4: 138  
 Hefia 3: 42 43  
 Hegel, Georg Wilhelm Friedrich 4: 186  
 Heian period 3: 198  
 Heidelberg man 4: 3  
 Heike family 3: 199  
 Heilong Jiang (river) 3: 3, 171 172 4: 297  
 Heilongjiang (province) 3: 172  
 Heisei era 3: 201  
 Hekatompylon 3: 32  
 Hekla (volcano) 4: 131  
 Hellenes 4: 15  
 Hellenic civilization 4: 31  
 Hellenistic kingdom 3: 59  
 Hellinikon 4: 16  
 Helmand River 3: 15  
 Helmand 3: 13 14  
 Helsinki 4: 4 127 128 129 130  
 Helsinki University 4: 146  
 Helvetic Republic 4: 204  
 Helveti people 4: 204  
 Hemmingway, Ernest 1: 223  
 Hanz 4: 184  
 Henan 3: 172 349  
 Henderson Island 5: 38  
 Henry I, king of Germany 4: 185  
 Henry II, king of England 4: 77  
 Henry II, king of France 4: 67  
 Henry III, Holy Roman emperor 4: 25  
 Henry IV, Holy Roman emperor 4: 25  
 Henry IV, king of France 4: 69 70  
 Henry VI, Holy Roman emperor 4: 26  
 Henry VII, king of England 4: 77  
 Henry VIII, king of England 4: 9 77 81  
 Henry the Navigator, prince of Portugal 1: 274 337 4: 87  
 Hentyn 3: 203  
 Hentyn Mountains 3: 202  
 Hentze, Carl 3: 176 177  
 Hicuzad 3: 247  
 Hephthalite Huns 3: 16  
 Heracles 4: 7  
 Heraklion 4: 15 16  
 Herat 3: 13 16 33  
 Herbert, Wally 5: 90  
 Herclanum 5: 135  
 Hercules, Pillars of 4: 42  
 Hercules Monoceros 4: 29  
 Herder, Johann Gottfried von 4: 186  
 Heredia, José María de 2: 150  
 Heredia (province, Costa Rica) 2: 88  
 Herero people 1: 275 294 295  
 Hieracoland 1: 294  
 Hermon, Mount 3: 47 63  
 Hernandez, José 2: 298  
 Hernandez, Martinez Maximiliano 2: 97  
 Herold, Conrad 4: 70  
 Herrera, Carlos Salazar 2: 89  
 Herrera 2: 112  
 Hersi 3: 14  
 Herulian people 4: 25  
 Herzegovina (see Bosnia and Herzegovina)  
 Herzl, Theodor 3: 44  
 Hesarch, John 4: 241  
 Heise, Hermann 4: 22  
 Heisen 4: 182  
 Heves 4: 254  
 Hex River Valley 5: 172  
 Heyerdahl, Thor 3: 120  
 Hhohho 1: 301  
 Hibberd, Jack 5: 17  
 Hidalgo (Mexico) 2: 102  
 Hidalgo, Bartolomé 2: 308  
 Hidalgo, Miguel 2: 106  
 Hierro Island 1: 338  
 Highlands (Papua New Guinea) 5: 29  
 Highveld 1: 300–301, 305  
 Hijaz kingdom 3: 19 21  
 Hijaz Range 3: 18  
 Hihlahlan 1: 25  
 Hihlahy, Mount 2: 145  
 Hihlah, al 3: 38  
 Hilly, Francis Billy 5: 32  
 Hima people 1: 210  
 Himachal Pradesh 3: 109  
 Himalayan Mountains 3: 2 13 31 99 104 105 106 107 121 124 125 131 167 169 170 211 246 4: 313 5: 138  
 Hinayana Buddhism (see Theravada Buddhism)  
 Hindi language 3: 100 116  
 119 (see also Urdu language)  
 Hindu Kush 3: 2 13 15 4: 313  
 Hindustan 2: 167 3: 4 100 102 103 109 114 116 116 123 133 134 252 304 5: 151 152  
 Hindus 1: 234 3: 8 32 104 118 122  
 Hindustan Plain 3: 2  
 Hindustani language (see Hindi language, Urdu language)  
 Hiri 1: 115  
 Hiri, Motu language 5: 29  
 Hirohito, emperor of Japan 3: 195 200 201  
 Hiroshima 3: 192 200  
 Hispaniola 2: 153 161  
 Hitler, Adolf 4: 10 156  
 Hitler, Stalin Pact 4: 296  
 Hittites 3: 41 59 66  
 Hiva Oa Island 5: 40  
 Hkakabo, Mount 3: 246  
 Hmong people 3: 255 258  
 Ho Chi Minh 3: 265 266 267  
 Ho Chi Minh City 3: 261 263 264 265 266  
 Ho Chi Minh Trail 3: 256  
 Ho Kyn 3: 186  
 Hoa Binh people 3: 265  
 Hoang Lien Son 3: 263  
 Hohart 5: 7 11 12  
 Hocema, Al 1: 28  
 Hodh el Chaguir 1: 70  
 Hodh el Chabir 1: 70  
 Hodi, Chott el 1: 11  
 Hoek van Holland 4: 191  
 Hofburg 4: 206  
 Hofmannsthal, Hugo von 4: 176  
 Hofrat en Nahas 1: 77  
 Hofudhborgarsyrdhl 4: 32  
 Hoge Veluwe National Park 4: 189  
 Hogg, a massif 1: 35  
 Hoh, Tauern (mountain range) 4: 173  
 Hojo family 3: 199  
 Hokitika 5: 71  
 Hokkaido 3: 5 190 191 193 196  
 Hoklo people 3: 340  
 Holberg, Ludvig 4: 125 140  
 Holden, Roberto 1: 277  
 Hometown 2: 145  
 Holguin (city) 2: 148  
 Holguin (province) 2: 148  
 Holland (country) 4: 191  
 Holland (country) (see Netherlands)  
 Holland, kingdom of 4: 191  
 Holle 1: 217  
 Hollywood 2: 39 43  
 Holocaust 4: 10  
 Holon 3: 42  
 Holsten 4: 125  
 Holsteinsborg 5: 100  
 Holy Alliance 4: 176  
 Holy Land 3: 43  
 Holy Roman Empire 4: 8 9 10 25, 26 69 175 179 186 204 206  
 Home Island (Indian Ocean) 3: 339  
 Homer 4: 7  
 Homindul 1: 4  
 Homo erectus 3: 4, 7 176 293 5: 148, 151  
 Homo habilis 5: 148 151  
 Homo modjokertensis 3: 304  
 Homo sapiens sapiens 3: 4 293, 4: 3, 5: 148 151 174  
 Homolyske Planine 4: 245  
 Homs 3: 54 55  
 Honduras 1: 114 116  
 Honduras, British (see Belize (country))  
 Honduras, Gulf of 2: 86 141  
 Honedo 1: 145  
 Hong Kong 3: 167 168 210 311, 339 330 5: 168  
 Honana 5: 1 31  
 Honolulu 5: 43  
 Honshu 3: 190 193 196 209  
 Hoon Islands 5: 10  
 Hope, Alec Derwent 5: 17  
 Horace 4: 8 25  
 Hordaland 4: 138  
 Hormozgan 3: 33  
 Hormuz Strait 3: 28  
 Hormuz Island 3: 33 345, 351  
 Horn of Africa 1: 3 4 105 114 116 3: 347  
 Horouta people 5: 27  
 Horseshoe Falls 2: 45  
 Horta 4: 84  
 Horthy, Miklos 4: 256  
 Horvath, Odon von 4: 186  
 Hottel Plateau 2: 162  
 Hottentots 1: 4 273 294 295 297 298 299 303 309  
 Houaphan 3: 255  
 Houet 1: 147  
 Houphouët, Bogny Félix 1: 152 153  
 Houston 2: 31 33 38 40 47  
 Houston Ship Channel 2: 47  
 Hovd 3: 203  
 Hovsgol 3: 203  
 Hovsgol Lake 3: 207  
 Howard, Ebenezer 4: 73  
 Howells, William Dean 2: 43  
 Hoxha, Enver 4: 235  
 Hoyk, Hugh Desmond 2: 201  
 Høysvik 4: 123  
 Hrabar 4: 241  
 Hradec Králové 4: 178  
 Hraoun, Elias 3: 48  
 Hsueh-shu 3: 207  
 Hui, Gmoking 3: 18  
 Huahine Island 5: 40  
 Huailien 3: 207  
 Huamachuco 2: 259  
 Huambo 1: 276  
 Huang, Wei-hua 2: 258 259  
 Huang Cheng 3: 173 (see also Beijing)  
 Huang He (river) 3: 3 8 170 209  
 Huang He Plain 3: 175  
 Huangpu (river) 3: 210  
 Huancayo 2: 258  
 Huasco 2: 246  
 Huasco River 2: 243  
 Hubei 3: 172  
 Hudaib, Al 3: 61 62  
 Hudson, Henry 5: 87 89  
 Hudson Bay 2: 13 21 5: 88  
 Hudson Bay Company 2: 22  
 Hudson River 2: 17 26 40  
 Huc 3: 263 264 265  
 Huehuetenango 2: 94  
 Huitan Range 5: 24  
 Huila (province, Angola) 1: 276  
 Huila (department, Colombia) 2: 250  
 Hukbalahap (Huk) movement 3: 298  
 Hulun Lake 3: 202  
 Hulwan 1: 18  
 Humbel River 2: 17  
 Humboldt, Alexander von 2: 206  
 Humboldt Current 2: 2 237 247  
 Humboldt Glacier 5: 89  
 Hume, David 4: 9 77  
 Humpata Plateau 1: 275  
 Hunan 3: 172  
 Hundred Years' War 4: 69 77  
 Huncdoara 4: 250  
 Hungarian people (see Magyar people)  
 Hungarian Mesopotamia 4: 253  
 Hungary 4: 4 176 198, 232 249 253 256 257 258 5: 97  
 Hungary, People's Republic of 4: 254  
 Huns 3: 16, 116, 4: 4, 8, 17, 25 69 189 241 256 296 300  
 Huns, Hephthalite 4: 306  
 Hunter, John 5: 23  
 Hunter Island 5: 39  
 Huntley Highlands 2: 156  
 Hunyadi, János 4: 256  
 Huon Islands 5: 39  
 Huron Lake 2: 13  
 Huriian people 3: 59  
 Hurs, Jan 4: 179  
 Hussein, king of Jordan 3: 30  
 Hussein, Saddam 3: 40  
 Husseinite dynasty 1: 34  
 Hussine movement 4: 179  
 Hutten, Ulrich von 4: 186  
 Hutu people (see Bahutu people)  
 Huwatsa 1: 3: 49  
 Hwang, 1: 306  
 Hwang National Park 1: 306  
 Hwanghae namdo 3: 184  
 Hvblaea tableland 4: 19  
 Hyde Park Link 2: 47  
 Hyderabad (India) 3: 106 109  
 Hyderabad (Pakistan) 3: 125, 126  
 Ivogo 3: 192  
 I  
 Ialonnja 4: 250  
 Iapygian people 4: 20 24  
 Iasi 4: 249 250  
 Ibadan 1: 168 169 170 171  
 Ibadhis 3: 50  
 Ibáñez del Campo, Carlos 2: 247  
 Ibaraki 3: 192  
 Ibb 3: 61  
 Iberia 4: 2 3  
 Iberia, Peninsula 4: 6 8 12 57 58  
 Iberian people 4: 20 93  
 Iberian Plateau 4: 3  
 Ibérico, Sistema 4: 88 89  
 Ibibio people 1: 169  
 Ibingu 1: 215  
 IBM 2: 37  
 Ibn Abdullah, Mohamed 1: 116  
 Ibn Khaldun 1: 15  
 Ibn Rushd 1: 30  
 Ibn Salman, Isa 3: 24  
 Ibn Saud 3: 19 20  
 Ibn Sma 4: 312  
 Ibn Tulun Mosque 1: 36  
 Ibn people 1: 169 170 172  
 Ibrahim, Malik 3: 304  
 IBRD (International Bank for Reconstruction and Development/World Bank) 5: 156  
 Ibsen, Henrik 4: 140  
 Ik, Anadolu 3: 58  
 Ica 2: 258  
 ICCO (International Cocoa Organization) 2: 196  
 Iceland 2: 22 4: 4 121 122 131 133 145 146 5: 85 86 89  
 IC O (International Coffee Organization) 2: 195  
 ID (Democratic Left Party) [Iciador] 2: 256  
 Idaho 2: 29 31 36 37  
 Idaho River 3: 25  
 Idjil region 1: 80  
 Idjil Mountains 1: 71  
 Idlib 3: 54  
 Idjya 4: 200  
 Idris (Arab geographer) 4: 126  
 Idris, king of Libya 1: 25 36  
 Idrisi dynasty 1: 40  
 II AD (International Fund for Agricultural Development) 5: 156

- Ifai 1: 116  
 Ife 1: 170  
 Ifranc 1: 28  
 Igami people 1: 169  
 Igoroti people 3: 296  
 Iguaçu Falls 2: 293  
 Iguaque National Park 2: 249  
 Iliavandifulu 3: 120  
 Ijssel River 4: 189  
 Ijsselmeer 4: 189  
 Ilam 3: 33  
 Ilan 3: 207  
 Île Bourbon (*see* Reunion Island)  
 Île de France (France) 4: 66  
 Île de France (Mauritius) 1: 289, 290  
 Île de la Cité 4: 67, 96  
 Île de la Petite Terre 2: 338  
 Îles Glorieuses 1: 336  
 Ilesha 1: 170  
 Ilhas Selvagens Island 1: 337  
 Ilheus 2: 194  
 Ilkhan dynasty 3: 36  
 Ilampu Mountain 2: 238  
 Iliman Mountain 2: 164, 231  
 Illinois 2: 31, 37  
 Ilizi 1: 13  
 Ilubabor 1: 110  
 Illyria 4: 235  
 Illyrian people 4: 255–256  
 Illyrianism 4: 243, 244, 246, 247  
 ILO (International Labour Organization) 5: 156  
 Ilocos 3: 297, 313  
 Ilolo 3: 298  
 Ilopango 2: 92  
 Ilopango Lake 2: 90  
 Ilorm 1: 169, 170  
 Imarat al Arabiya al Muttahida al (*see* United Arab Emirates)  
 Imbubura 2: 254  
 IMF (International Monetary Fund) 2: 103, 241, 245, 5: 156  
 Imo 1: 169  
 Imperial Canal 3: 351  
 Imperial Mosque 3: 132  
 Inagua Island 2: 143  
 Inca civilization 2: 3, 6, 82, 53, 237, 241, 255, 261, 264  
 Inchi 1: 70  
 Inchon 3: 188, 189, 190  
 Independence 2: 154  
 Independencia Plaza de la (Asunción) 2: 309  
 Independencia Plaza de la (Montevideo) 2: 310  
 Independent State of Palestine 3: 30  
 Independent State of Papua New Guinea 5: 28, 30, 34, 97  
 Independent State of Western Samoa 5: 3, 4, 32, 33  
 India 3: 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 99, 100, 102, 106–119, 126, 127, 131, 132, 133, 134, 260, 345, 351, 5: 97, 148  
 India Act (England) 4: 78  
 Indian Claims Commission 2: 11  
 Indian National Congress 3: 117, 127  
 Indian Ocean 1: 108, 109, 112, 114, 116, 223, 224, 233, 273, 288, 296, 3: 1, 99, 100, 132, 295, 300, 310, 339, 5: 7, 131  
 Indian people 1: 225, 284, 289, 297, 335, 336, 3: 16, 51, 307, 309, 347, 5: 18, 19  
 Indian region 3: 99–134, 347  
 Indian Union 3: 118  
 Indiana 2: 6, 31, 37  
 Indians, American (*see* Amerind people, *Indios*)  
 Indigirka Basin 5: 89  
*Indios* 2: 88, 90, 97, 101, 106, 109, 150, 187, 192, 193, 198, 241, 244, 254, 258, 261, 263, 297, 303  
 Indo-Aryan languages 3: 99–100, 130  
 Indo-Aryan people 3: 4, 8, 109, 114, 122, 123, 127  
 Indochina 3: 3, 6, 245, 268, 351  
 Indochina French 3: 253, 256, 265  
 Indochinese Communist Party 3: 265, 266  
 Indochinese people 3: 185, 188  
 Indo-European languages 5: 151  
 Indo-European people 3: 13, 14, 35, 36, 109  
 Indo-Gangetic Plain 3: 99, 106, 107, 108, 111, 112, 131  
 Indo-Iranian people 3: 11  
 Indonesia 3: 6, 7, 10, 293, 299, 305, 313, 314, 351, 5: 30, 164  
 Indonesian Communist Party (PKI) 3: 305  
 Indonesian Islamic Association 3: 305  
 Indonesian Islands 3: 8, 9  
 Indonesian Nationalist Party (PNI) 3: 305  
 Indonesian people 1: 284, 285, 3: 260, 265, 309, 311, 5: 22  
 Indragiri River 3: 301  
 Indus civilization 3: 8, 127  
 Indus Plain 3: 125  
 Indus River 3: 3, 8, 13, 99, 107, 108, 114, 124, 170, 345  
 Ines de la Cruz Juana 2: 106  
 Ingwavuma River 1: 301  
 Inhambane 1: 291  
 Inn River 4: 173, 201  
 Inuq Mongolia 3: 169, 171, 172, 175, 205, 209 (*see also* Mongolia)  
 Inusbruck 4: 173, 175  
 Inquisition 4: 94  
 Institute for Religious Works (IOR) [Vatican City] 4: 13  
 Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI) [Mexico] 2: 107  
 Interior Plains 2: 13  
 International African Association 4: 63  
 International Bank for Reconstruction and Development/World Bank (IBRD) 5: 156  
 International Cocoa Organization (ICCO) 2: 196  
 International Office Organization (IOO) 2: 195  
 International Date Line 5: 130  
 International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) 5: 156  
 International Geophysical Year of 1957–58 5: 94, 95, 96, 97, 100  
 International Labour Organization (ILO) 5: 156  
 International Monetary Fund (IMF) 2: 104, 241, 245, 5: 156  
 Intertropical Convergence 2: 141  
 Intibuca 2: 97  
 Inuit people 2: 11, 12, 15, 21, 46, 5: 86, 87, 88, 89, 90, 99, 100  
 Inyanga Range 1: 305  
 Ionian Islands 4: 14  
 Ionian people 3: 59, 4: 15  
 Ionian Sea 4: 14  
 IOR (Institute for Religious Works) [Vatican City] 4: 13  
 Iowa 2: 31, 35  
 Ipele River 4: 197  
 Ipo 3: 308, 309  
 Iqbal Muhammad 3: 127  
 Iquitos 2: 257  
 IRA (Irish Republican Army) movement 4: 82, 95  
 Iran 3: 2, 6, 8, 11, 12, 30–36, 38, 39, 40, 63, 64, 65, 66, 5: 164  
 Iran Mountains (Malaysia) 3: 306  
 Iran-Contra Affair 2: 44  
 Iranian people 3: 11, 13, 14, 45, 51  
 Iranian Plateau 3: 12, 13, 31  
 Iraq 3: 6, 11, 12, 35, 36, 37–40, 46, 65–66, 5: 164  
 Iraq al 'Ajam 3: 39  
 Iraq al Arabi 3: 39  
 Iraqi people 3: 45  
 Irai River 2: 88  
 Irbil 3: 38  
 Ireland 2: 29, 30, 4: 4, 57, 78, 79, 82, 95, 96 (*see also* Northern Ireland)  
 Irian Jaya 3: 6, 300, 302, 5: 3, 28, 30  
 Iringa 1: 235  
 Irish Free State 4: 82  
 Irish Nationalist Party 4: 81  
 Irish Republican Army (IRA) movement 4: 82, 95  
 Irish Republican Brotherhood 4: 81, 82  
 Irish Sea 4: 72  
 Irkutsk 4: 299  
 Iron Curtain 4: 10  
 Iron Gates 4: 245, 249, 257  
 Iron Guard 4: 252  
 Iroquois people 2: 17  
 Irtipia 4: 19  
 Irrawaddy Delta region 3: 247  
 Irrawaddy River 3: 3, 246, 247, 248, 249, 267, 268  
 Irtysh River 4: 291, 292  
 Isabel (Solomon Islands) 5: 31  
 Isabella I, queen of Spain 4: 93  
 Isalo National Park 1: 284  
 Ischia 4: 19  
 Isco Lake 4: 18  
 Isère 4: 67  
 Isère River 4: 65  
 Isfahan (*see* I Shāhan)  
 Ishikawa 3: 197  
 Ishim fortifications 4: 293  
 Iskenderun 3: 59  
 Isla (*see* substantive word except as listed below)  
 Isla de la Juventud 2: 146, 148, 149  
 Islas de la Bahía 2: 97  
 Islam 1: 29, 106, 116, 169, 3: 1, 5, 5, 11, 12, 13, 14, 16, 19, 21, 32, 34, 36, 55, 56, 62, 64, 65, 66, 100, 102, 103, 104, 109, 116, 120, 123, 125, 168, 304, 309, 310, 5: 151, 152, 175 (*see also* Muslims, Shiite Muslims, Sunni Muslims)  
 Islamabad 3: 6, 124, 125  
 Islamic Jihad 4: 71  
 Islamic Republic of Pakistan (*see* Pakistan)  
 Islamic Salvation Front (Algeria) 1: 14, 16  
 Islas Island 4: 71  
 Ismaelite Qaimatians 3: 21  
 Ismailiya 1: 17, 18  
 Isomro Valley 4: 12  
 Israel 3: 6, 41, 44, 45, 56, 63, 65, 66  
 Israeli people 3: 12, 340  
 Issas 1: 113  
 Issia 1: 152  
 Issyk-Kul 4: 294  
 Istanbul 3: 58, 59, 60 (*see also* Byzantium, Constantinople)  
 Istiqlal Party (Morocco) 1: 30  
 Istria 4: 12, 27, 232, 242, 243, 258  
 Istrian Peninsula 4: 242  
 Itapúa 2: 194  
 Itaipu 2: 303  
 Itaipu Lake (Embalse Itaipu) 2: 301  
 Itali people 4: 24  
 Italian East Africa 1: 112, 116  
 Italian language 4: 202  
 Italian people 1: 25, 4: 200, 243, 5: 3  
 Italian Somaliland 1: 116  
 Italiana Petroli 4: 234  
 Italic League 4: 26  
 Italsider 4: 32  
 Italy 4: 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11–12, 18–27, 30, 31, 32, 172, 5: 97, 98, 167  
 Italy, Kingdom of 4: 10, 26  
 Itamaraty, Palacio de 2: 212  
 Itapua 2: 302  
 Itasca Lake 2: 45  
 Itasy Lake 1: 283  
 Ituri 1: 244  
 Ivan I, grand prince of Moscow 4: 303  
 Ivan III, grand prince of Russia 4: 303  
 Ivan IV (the Terrible), czar of Russia 3: 9, 4: 127, 303  
 Ivano-Frankovsk 4: 309  
 Ivanovo 4: 299  
 Ivindo 1: 220  
 Ivory Coast 1: 5, 144, 151, 153, 182, 335  
 Iwate 3: 192  
 Izabal 2: 94  
 Izabal Lake 2: 93  
 Izalco Volcano 2: 90  
 Izmu 3: 58, 59  
 Izmit 3: 59  
 Iztaccihuatl (volcano) 2: 99, 101  
**J**  
 Jaali people 1: 76  
 Jabal (Jebel Djabel) (*see* substantive word)  
 Jabavu, Nomi 1: 300  
 Jachymov deposit 4: 178  
 Jacinto, Antonio 1: 277  
 Jackson, Andrew 2: 41  
 Jackson Square 2: 48  
 Jacksonville 2: 33  
 Jacmel 2: 162  
 Jachida 11 1: 28  
 Jadwiga of Anjou 4: 136  
 Jaffa 3: 42  
 Jaffarites (*see* Shiite Muslims)  
 Jaffna 3: 128, 130  
 Jagan, Cheddi 2: 701  
 Jagiellon dynasty 4: 179, 196  
 Jagodnja (mountain) 4: 245  
 Jahrah al 3: 15  
 Jainism 3: 4, 8, 100, 132  
 Jainu 3: 109  
 Jaisalmer 3: 132  
 Jaji, Ali 3: 132  
 Jakarta 3: 6, 299, 300, 302, 304  
 Jakun people 3: 307  
 Jalalabad 3: 14  
 Jalapa 2: 94  
 Jalisco 2: 102  
 Jalu oases 1: 27  
 Jamahiriya al Arabiya al Ithiya ash-Shabiya al Isthraqiya al Ustia al (*see* Libya)  
 Jamaica 2: 4, 141, 156, 159, 169  
 Jamaica Channel 2: 161  
 Jamaican Labour Party (JLP) 2: 159  
 Jambi 3: 302  
 James, Henry 4: 66  
 James I, king of England 4: 77  
 Jamestown (St. Helena) 1: 336  
 Jamhuri va Kenya (*see* Kenya)  
 Jamhuri ya Muungano wa Tanzania (*see* Tanzania)  
 Jamhuri ya Uganda (*see* Uganda)  
 Jamhuriat Afghanistan (*see* Afghanistan)  
 Jamhuri ya Uganda (*see* Uganda)  
 Jamhuriyadda Dimuqadiyada Somaliya (*see* Somalia)  
 Jammu 3: 100, 106, 109  
 Jamtland 4: 143  
 Jamuna River (*see* Brahmaputra River)  
 Jan Mayen Island 4: 137, 5: 87  
 Janakpur 3: 122  
 Jamissaries 3: 60  
 Jansz, Willem 5: 16  
 Janubiah 3: 50  
 Japan 3: 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 167, 168, 186, 190, 201, 209, 211, 212, 351, 5: 97, 159, 167  
 Japanese people 3: 208, 250, 299, 5: 22, 32, 38  
 Japen Island 3: 300  
 Jardin Exotique (Monaco) 4: 29  
 Jars, Plain of 3: 245, 254  
 Jaruzelski, Wojciech 4: 196  
 Jasper National Park 2: 15  
 Jász Nagykanizsa 4: 254  
 Java 3: 2, 7, 8, 293, 300, 301, 302, 303, 304, 305, 309, 314  
 Java man 3: 8, 293  
 Java Sea 3: 300  
 Javanese people 3: 252, 304  
 Jawara 1: 155  
 Jawl al 3: 19, 61  
 Jawhar 1: 116  
 Jayawardene, J. R. 3: 130  
 Jazirah Plateau 3: 37  
 Jean, grand duke of Nassau 4: 83  
 Jeanneet Charles Edouard 2: 212  
 Jebel (*see* substantive word)  
 Leboda Fenn 1: 172  
 Ject. Mount 1: 291  
 Jedid, Salah 3: 56  
 Jeffara (Hilarah) Plain 1: 27  
 Jefferson, Thomas 2: 28, 41, 46  
 Jelacic, Josp 4: 244  
 Jelenia Gora 4: 194  
 Jendouba 1: 33  
 Jerada 1: 29  
 Jeremic 2: 162  
 Jericho 3: 29  
 Jerudong 3: 294  
 Jerusalem 3: 6, 29, 30, 41, 42, 43, 64, 66  
 Jesus Christ 4: 25  
 Jewish people 3: 12, 41, 42, 43, 44, 4: 10, 250, 253, 288, 314, 5: 175  
 Jewish religion (*see* Judaism)  
 Jhelum River 3: 107  
 Jiang Jieshi (Chiang Kai-shek) 3: 181, 208  
 Jingsu 3: 5, 172  
 Jiangsu 3: 172, 175  
 Judd Halls 3: 23  
 Judd Halls 3: 18, 19, 21  
 Juffarah (Jellara) Plain 1: 31, 33  
 Jigawa 1: 169  
 Jihocsky 4: 178  
 Jihomoravsky 4: 178  
 Jiji 1: 13  
 Jilin 3: 172  
 Jima 1: 109, 110  
 Jinja 1: 238  
 Jinoteg 2: 109  
 Jiohri 1: 115  
 Jizan 3: 19  
 Joan of Arc 4: 69  
 Joao VI, king of Portugal 2: 198  
 Joche people 4: 292  
 Jochuu 4: 128  
 Johannesburg 1: 296, 297, 298, 299, 309  
 John III, king of Sweden 4: 144  
 John of Acre, St. 3: 43  
 John Paul II, pope 4: 206  
 Johore 3: 308  
 Johore Bahru 3: 308, 309  
 Johore Strait 3: 310  
 Jola people 1: 154  
 Jomhuri ye Eslami ye Iran (*see* Iran)  
 Jomon people 3: 197  
 Jonathan, Leabua 1: 282  
 Jondo E. F. 1: 213  
 Jones, Steven B. 5: 162  
 Jong River 1: 177  
 Jonglei Canal 1: 76, 77  
 Jonkoping 4: 142, 143  
 Jordan 3: 6, 28–30, 63, 64, 66  
 Jordan River 3: 28, 41, 47  
 Jordanian Plateau 1: 75  
 Jos people 1: 169  
 Jos Plateau 1: 170, 171  
 Joseph II, Holy Roman emperor 4: 176, 256  
 Joseph Bonaparte Gulf 5: 7  
 Jost Van Dyke 2: 337  
 Jostedalsbreen ice field 4: 138  
 Joual 2: 16

Jowzjan 3: 14  
 Joyce, James 4: 82  
 JPL (Jamaican Labour Party) 2: 159  
 Juan Carlos I de Borbón, king of Spain 4: 94  
 Juan de Nova Island 1: 336  
 Juan Fernández Islands 2: 242  
 Juanjuan kingdom 3: 204  
 Juba 1: 75  
 Juba, Middle 1: 115  
 Juba River 1: 105, 108, 114, 115, 207  
 Jubayl 3: 19, 21  
 Judaism 2: 32, 3; 4, 8, 42, 66, 4: 126; 5: 152  
 Judea Plain 3: 42  
 Jutrah, al 1: 22  
 Jugendstil 4: 176  
 Juhayna people 1: 76  
 Jujuy 2: 295  
 Jujuy, Puna de 2: 290-291  
 Julian Alps 4: 18, 19, 172, 199, 205  
 Juliana, queen of the Netherlands 4: 192  
 Julanahab 5: 86  
 Julius Caesar 4: 8, 24, 190  
 Jumhuriya al-'Arabiya as Suriya, Al- (see Syria)  
 Jumhuriya al-Iraqiya, Al- (see Iraq)  
 Jumhuriya al-Islamiya al-Murtaniya, Al- (see Mauritania)  
 Jumhuriya al-Jazaniya ad-Dinuqratiya ash-Shabiya, Al- (see Algeria)  
 Jumhuriya al-Yamaniya, Al- (see Yemen)  
 Jumhuriya at-Tunisiya, Al- (see Tunisia)  
 Jumhuriya Jibuti (see Djibouti [country])  
 Jumhuriya Misr al-'Arabiya, Al- (see Egypt)  
 Jumhuriyah al-Lubnaniyah, Al- (see Lebanon)  
 Jumhuriyat as-Sudan, Al- (see Sudan)  
 Jumhuriyat Tashad (see Chad)  
 Juneau 2: 27  
 Junin 2: 258  
 Juvazapines Hills 4: 135  
 Jura 4: 202  
 Jura Island 4: 71  
 Jura Mountains 4: 64, 201  
 Justinian, Roman emperor 4: 17, 25  
 Jutes 4: 76, 125  
 Jutapa 2: 94  
 Jutland 4: 123, 124  
 Jvancica Mountain 4: 242  
 Jylland 4: 123, 124

## K

Kaarta 1: 68  
 Kabalega National Park 1: 238  
 Kabardino-Balkarskaya 4: 299  
 Kabogo, Cape 4: 234  
 Kabongo, P 1: 246  
 Kabre people 1: 180  
 Kabuki theater 3: 212  
 Kabul 3: 13, 14, 15, 16, 64  
 Kabul River 3: 13, 14  
 Kabyles 1: 12  
 Kabylia Mountains 1: 12  
 Kacem, Sidi 1: 28, 29  
 Kachin 3: 247, 248, 249  
 Kachin people 3: 247  
 Kaçkar, Mount 3: 57  
 Kadam, Mount 1: 237  
 Kadare, Ismail 4: 235  
 Kadavu 5: 18  
 Kadungo 1: 147  
 Kaduna 1: 169, 171  
 Kaebel 3: 6  
 Kaedi 1: 70  
 Kaema Plateau 3: 183  
 Kae-sŏng 3: 184, 185  
 Kalfir Wars 1: 299  
 Kafka, Franz 4: 176, 201

Kafir el-Sheikh 1: 18  
 Kafue National Park 1: 303  
 Kafue River 1: 302  
 Kagawa 3: 192  
 Kagera 1: 235  
 Kagera National Park 1: 228  
 Kagera River 1: 3, 35, 208, 228, 237  
 Kagoshima 3: 191, 192  
 Kahinzi Biaga National Park 1: 242  
 Kai Islands 3: 300  
 Kaiteur Falls National Park 2: 200  
 Kaileng 3: 179  
 Kaimur Range 3: 107  
 Kainji, Lake 1: 168, 169, 171  
 Kairouan 1: 32, 33, 34  
 Kajan River 3: 301  
 Kakadu National Park 5: 43, 44  
 Kakkınız kıyısı 3: 58  
 Kakir people 3: 14  
 Kakoulma Massif 1: 160  
 Kalaallit Nunaat (see Greenland)  
 Kalahari Desert 1: 3, 4, 223, 273, 277, 278, 296, 302, 305, 306, 309  
 Kalahari Gemsbok National Park 1: 297  
 Kalasasaya 2: 264  
 Kalemegdan fortress 4: 258  
 Kalawa 3: 249  
 Kalidasa 3: 115  
 Kaliti 1: 227  
 Kahlah Wa Dimnah 3: 66  
 Kalimantan 3: 299, 302, 303 (see also Borneo)  
 Kaliningrad 4: 171, 299  
 Kalisz 4: 194  
 Kally Hill 2: 336  
 Kalmar 4: 143  
 Kalman, Union of 4: 125, 140, 144  
 Kalmykia 4: 299  
 Kaloum Peninsula 1: 161, 162  
 Kaluga 4: 299  
 Kalvos, Andreas 4: 17  
 Kama River 4: 2  
 Kamakura 3: 193, 198, 199  
 Kamal, Babrak 3: 16  
 Kamatari 3: 198  
 Kambuja people 3: 252  
 Kamchatka 4: 300, 313  
 Kamchatka Peninsula 5: 89  
 Kamchancha, king of Hawaii 5: 43  
 Kammik Alps 4: 199  
 Kampala 1: 5, 237, 238, 248  
 Kampar River 3: 301  
 Kampong Ayer 3: 294  
 Kamptot 3: 251  
 Kamsar 1: 162  
 Kanagawa 3: 192  
 Kanak people 5: 39  
 Kananga 1: 241, 243  
 Kanchenjunga (mountain) 3: 106  
 Kandahar 3: 13, 14, 15, 16  
 Kandal 3: 251  
 Kandriya Temple 3: 134  
 Kandy 3: 130  
 Kanak, Cheikh Hamidou 1: 8, 176  
 Kane, Elisha 5: 89-90  
 Kanem 1: 63, 64  
 Kanem Bornu Empire 1: 7, 64, 74  
 Kangaba 1: 68  
 Kangto (mountain) 3: 106  
 KanNgwane people 1: 297  
 Kangwŏn-do 3: 184, 188  
 Kanha National Park 3: 108  
 Kaniska, emperor of India 3: 16, 115  
 Kankan 1: 160-161, 162  
 Kankau Mountains 1: 160  
 Kano 1: 168, 169, 170, 171, 182  
 Kansas 2: 31, 35, 37  
 Kansas City 2: 33  
 Kant, Immanuel 4: 9, 186  
 Kantché 1: 73  
 Kanto Plain 3: 191

KANU (Kenya African National Union) 1: 227  
 Kanuri people 1: 169  
 Kao (volcano) 5: 34  
 Kaohsiung 3: 207, 208  
 Kaokoland 1: 294  
 Kaolack 1: 174, 175  
 Kapingamarangi Rise 5: 22  
 Kapisa 3: 14  
 Kapuas Mountains 3: 306  
 Kapuas River 3: 301  
 Kara-Bogaz-Gol 4: 307  
 Kara Sea 4: 313, 5: 85, 87, 89, 90  
 Karachayev-Cherkesskaya 4: 209  
 Karachi 3: 124, 125, 126  
 Karadeniz kıyısı 3: 58  
 Karaganda 4: 291, 292  
 Karaganda Basin 4: 292, 302  
 Karak 3: 28  
 Karakalpak people 4: 312  
 Karakalpakstan Republic 4: 312  
 Karakoram Range 3: 2, 106, 124, 170, 4: 313  
 Karakorum 3: 349  
 Karakum Desert 4: 307, 308  
 Karamanlis, Constantine 4: 17  
 Karamoja 1: 238  
 Karanga people 1: 308  
 Karasburg 1: 294  
 Karawanken Mountains 4: 172, 173, 199  
 Karbala 3: 38  
 Kareha 4: 302, 304  
 Kareha Shield 4: 297  
 Kareha War 4: 130  
 Karen 3: 247, 249  
 Karen people 3: 245, 247, 250, 258  
 Kariba 1: 307  
 Kariba Dam 1: 274, 305, 310  
 Karibib 1: 294  
 Karichyn (see Volgograd)  
 Karisimbi 1: 207  
 Karisimbi, Mount 1: 228  
 Karlowitz, Treaty of 4: 243, 256  
 Karlsefin 5: 89  
 Karlstad 4: 142  
 Karnak Temple 1: 20  
 Karnali 3: 122  
 Karmataka 3: 109  
 Karnten 4: 175  
 Karpaso Peninsula 3: 25  
 Karpethos 4: 14  
 Karstendel (mountain) 4: 173  
 Karst (Kras) region 4: 199, 242  
 Karthala (volcano) 1: 280  
 Karuama 1: 229  
 Karuzi 1: 209  
 Kasai 1: 243, 244  
 Kasar River 1: 241, 243, 245  
 Kasar-Sankuru Valley 1: 240  
 Kashgar 3: 351  
 Kashka Darya 4: 312  
 Kashkar people 3: 32  
 Kashmīr 3: 100, 106, 109, 113, 127, 133  
 Kassala 1: 75, 76  
 Kassandra 4: 14  
 Kassel 4: 184  
 Kasserine 1: 33  
 Kastrioti, George 4: 235  
 Kastrova Lake 4: 15  
 Kasungu National Park 1: 287  
 Kasym Khan 4: 292  
 Katanga 1: 246  
 Kateb, Jasim (Yacine) 1: 16  
 Katherina, Djebel 1: 17  
 Kathmandu 3: 6, 121, 122, 123  
 Katolia 1: 152, 153  
 Katipunan Society 3: 299  
 Katmai, Mount 2: 26  
 Katmai National Monument 2: 28  
 Katowice 4: 194  
 Katsina 1: 169  
 Kaunas 4: 136  
 Kaunda, Kenneth 1: 304  
 Kavango 1: 294  
 Kaveri River 3: 108  
 Kavar Desert (Dashi-e Kavar) 3: 31, 63

Kawasaki 3: 192  
 Kaya 1: 147  
 Kayah 3: 247  
 Kayan people 3: 308  
 Kayanza 1: 209  
 Kaybada, Grégoire 1: 229  
 Kayes 1: 66, 67  
 Kayor 1: 175  
 Kayoya, Michel 1: 210  
 Kayseri 3: 58, 59  
 Kazak Respublikasy (see Kazakhstan)  
 Kazakh people 4: 284, 291, 292-293, 307, 312  
 Kazakhstan 4: 4, 284, 291, 293, 314  
 Kazan 4: 300  
 Kazan khanate 3: 9  
 Kazbek, Mount 4: 289  
 Kaziranga National Park 3: 108  
 Kehah, Nene 1: 162  
 Keats, John 4: 78  
 Kebbi 1: 169  
 Kebili 1: 33  
*Kebla Nagast* 1: 111  
 Kedah 3: 308  
 Kedah people 3: 307  
 Kedau Idjil 1: 69  
 Keele Peak 2: 13  
 Keeling Islands 3: 339  
 Keelung 3: 207  
 Keetmanshoop 1: 294  
 Kei, Li 1: 33  
 Kela 1: 109, 110  
 Ketallma 4: 14  
 Kettavik 4: 132  
 Kewland, Alexander 4: 140  
 Keta, Mobido 1: 68  
 Keta people 1: 68  
 Kekes, Mount 4: 257  
 Kelaa Saadina, el 1: 28  
 Kelang 3: 309  
 Kelani River 3: 129  
 Kelantan 3: 308  
 Kelantan River 3: 306  
 Kellgren, Johan Henrik 4: 144  
 Kemal, Mustafa 3: 58, 60  
 Kemal Atatürk movement 3: 26  
 Kemerovo 4: 209  
 Kemi-Kittinen River 4: 128  
 Kemné 4: 308  
 Kemo Gribingui 1: 215  
 Kenedougou 1: 147  
 Kenema 1: 17  
 Kenéba Mountains 1: 66  
 Kendorca, Peter 5: 32  
 Kentia 1: 26, 28, 29  
 Kennedy, John Fitzgerald 2: 8, 44, 48  
 Kennedy, Robert 2: 44  
 Kentucky 2: 6, 31, 35, 36  
 Kenya 1: 5, 207, 223, 227, 247, 248, 336, 5: 148, 173  
 Kenya, Mount 1: 223  
 Kenya African National Union (KANU) 1: 227  
 Kenyan Plain 1: 223  
*Kensapithecus* 5: 148  
 Kepler, Johannes 5: 125  
 Kerala 3: 5, 109  
 Kéran Forest Reserve, La 1: 179  
 Kerhabayev, Berdi 4: 308  
 Kerekon, Mathieu 1: 146  
 Keren 1: 107  
 Kereselm, Thorfin 2: 11  
 Kerguelen Islands 5: 91  
 Kerguelen-Trémarec, Yves-Joseph de 5: 94  
 Kerinci, Mount (volcano) 3: 300  
 Kerina 1: 78  
 Kermadec Trench 5: 1, 2  
 Kerman 3: 33, 35  
 Kermanshah 3: 35  
 Kerouac, Jack 2: 31-32, 43  
 Kerkira River 3: 202  
 Keski Suomi 4: 129  
 Ketsina 1: 182  
 Kgalagadi 1: 278  
 Kgatleng 1: 278  
 KGB 4: 313  
 Khabarovsk 4: 299  
 Khaddad, Nagib 1: 21

Khan-od din (Barbarossa) 1: 15  
 Khakass 4: 299  
 Khakimi 4: 314  
 Khaled 1: 15  
 Khalid 3: 22  
 Khalifah dynasty, al- 3: 24, 52  
 Khalji dynasty 3: 116  
 Khalkha people 3: 202-203  
 Khalkyn River 3: 204  
 Khama, Sir Seretse 1: 279  
 Khambat 3: 113  
 Khammouan 3: 255  
 Khun, Ayub 3: 127  
 Khan, Gihulam Ishaq 3: 127  
 Khan, Genghis (see Genghis Khan)  
 Khan, Kublai (see Kublai Khan)  
 Khan, Yahya 3: 127  
 Khangai Mountains 3: 202  
 Khanty Mansi District 4: 299  
 Khao Yoi National Park 3: 258  
 Khazar, Jebel 3: 65  
 Khang Island 3: 35, 65  
 Khanga (oasis) 1: 18, 19  
 Kharpies 3: 50  
 Kharkov 4: 309, 310  
 Khartoum 1: 5, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 117  
 Khas Sam Roi Yoy Natural Park 3: 267  
 Khashin el Gharb 1: 77  
 Khasi languages 3: 100  
 Khasi people 3: 122  
 Khaskovo 4: 239  
 Khaymah, Rus al- 3: 26, 27, 28  
 Khazari people 4: 303  
 Khemsset 1: 28  
 Khenchela 1: 13  
 Khemfra 1: 28  
 Khenter Mountains 3: 202  
 Kherson 4: 309  
 Kherson River 4: 310  
 Khitan kingdom 3: 204  
 Khitan people 3: 186  
 Khiva 4: 312  
 Kholmitski 4: 309  
 Khmer people 3: 245, 251, 252, 253, 256, 260, 268  
 Khmer Rouge 3: 252, 253  
 Khosan languages 5: 151  
 Khosan people 1: 234  
 Khomeni, Ayatollah Ruhollah 3: 34, 36, 64, 65  
 Khon Kaen 3: 258  
 Khorasan 3: 31, 32, 33, 34  
 Khorat Plateau 3: 257, 258, 260  
 Khorozm 4: 312  
 Khosro 11 3: 36  
 Khouthba 1: 28, 29  
 Khushchev, Nikita 4: 292, 306, 304, 305, 309  
 Khuzdhand 4: 306  
 Khulna 3: 102, 103  
 Khums, Al 1: 23  
 Khun people 3: 258  
 Khuisanyah 3: 20  
 Khushhal Khan 3: 16  
 Khuzestan 3: 32, 33, 35  
 Khyber Pass 3: 13, 16, 99, 124  
 Kibo (volcano) 1: 247  
 Kibiri Mosque 1: 248  
 Kibungo 1: 228  
 Kibuye 1: 228  
 Kidder, J. F. 3: 197  
 Kilepo National Park 1: 238  
 Kiel, Treaty of 4: 133  
 Kielce 4: 194  
 Kien Giang 3: 263  
 Kie-Niem 1: 221  
 Kierkegaard, Søren 4: 125  
 Kiev (city) 4: 4, 144, 289, 303, 308, 309, 310, 313  
 Kiev (state) 4: 309, 311  
 Kigali 1: 5, 228, 229  
 Kigeri V 1: 229  
 Kigoma 1: 235  
 Kihinah, Dihia-al- 1: 7  
 Kija 3: 145  
 Kija dynasty 3: 183, 188  
 Kikori River 5: 29  
 Kikuyu people 1: 224, 225, 226, 227  
 Kilauea (volcano) 5: 41



- Kilimanjaro 1: 226-248  
 Kilimanjaro Mount 1: 2-207  
 233, 234-247  
 Kilimanjaro region 1: 235  
 Killarney 5: 175  
 Kilombero River 1: 233  
 Kim Il Sang 3: 186  
 Kimberley 1: 298-310  
 Kimberley Range 5: 8  
 Kimbalek 3: 184  
 Kinabalu 3: 308  
 Kinabalu Mount 3: 306  
 Kinabatangan River 3: 306  
 Kindia 1: 161-162  
 King Martin Luther 2: 44  
 King Iyasal Foundation 3: 64  
 King Mountain (Ontario) 5: 173  
 King William Island 5: 88-89  
 Kings Valley of 1: 20  
 King's Mosque (Festian) 3: 36  
 Kingston (Jamaica) 2: 156-157  
 158  
 Kingstown 2: 166  
 Kinki region 3: 192, 193  
 Kinshasa 1: 5-6, 240, 241-243,  
 244-245  
 Kinyeti Mount 1: 75  
 Kipengere Range 1: 233  
 Kirdi people 1: 211  
 Kiribati 5: 3-4, 19-20  
 Kiruna Islands 5: 28  
 Kirkuk 3: 38-39  
 Kirkvane 2: 158  
 Kirkwall 4: 72  
 Kirov 4: 299  
 Kirovabad 4: 287  
 Kirovograd 4: 309  
 Kirqah i Shuri Mosque 3: 15  
 Kirsch Olga 1: 300  
 Kirihar Range 3: 124  
 Kirtipui 3: 123  
 Kiruna 4: 143  
 Kitundo 1: 209  
 Kisangani 1: 241-243, 244-245  
 Kisangani River 1: 241  
 Kishinev 4: 4-295  
 Kismayu 1: 115, 116  
 Kisoundi 1: 218  
 Kisti people 1: 161-178  
 Kisumu 1: 224  
 Kita 1: 67  
 Kitakyishu 3: 192  
 Kitwa 1: 303  
 Kivi Aleksis 4: 130  
 Kivi 1: 243-244  
 Kivu Lake 1: 228-229, 241-248  
 Kizil Irmak (river) 3: 57  
 Klagenfurt 4: 175  
 Klahoyo 1: 153  
 Klapeda 4: 136  
 Klaus Vachav 4: 179  
 Klemantan people 3: 307  
 Klimt Gustav 4: 176  
 Klsuru 4: 241  
 Klopstock Friedrich Gottlieb 4: 186  
 Kluane National Park 2: 15  
 Klyuchevskaya Sopka 4: 314  
 Knights of Labor 2: 43  
 Knights of Malta 4: 31  
 Knights of St John 4: 28  
 Knutsson Powell 5: 89  
 Ko Phuket (island) 3: 757  
 Ko Samui (island) 3: 757  
 Koba National Park 1: 174  
 Kobe 3: 192-196, 197  
 Koch Lange 5: 90  
 Kochi 3: 192  
 Koddhar Bay 3: 128  
 Kolen people 3: 198  
 Kogi 1: 169  
 Kogi people 2: 237  
 Kogon River 1: 160  
 Koguryo kingdom 3: 185  
 Koh Kong 3: 751  
 Kohl, Helmut 4: 187  
 Koka (Nazret) 1: 110  
 Kokchatav 4: 292  
 Koko people (see Bakoko people)  
 Kola Peninsula 4: 302  
 Kolahun 1: 167  
 Kolda 1: 174  
 Kolding 4: 124  
 Kolenite River 1: 160  
 Kolguyn Island 5: 88  
 Kolinghu André 1: 216  
 Kolobrzeg 4: 195  
 Kolonia 5: 4, 21, 22  
 Kolyma River 5: 85-89  
 Komadugu Yobe River 1: 72-168  
 Komárom Esztergom 4: 254  
 Kombo Saint Mary (council The Gambia) 1: 155  
 Komi 4: 299  
 Komi Permian District 4: 299  
 Kommunisma Pik 4: 305  
 Komodo 3: 313  
 Komoe National Park 1: 151  
 Kompong Cham 3: 251  
 Kompong Chhnang 3: 251  
 Kompong Som 3: 251-252  
 Kompong Speu 3: 251  
 Kompong Thom 3: 251  
 Komsomolsk 4: 302  
 Konarha 3: 14  
 Konbaung dynasty 3: 249  
 Kone Forest Preserve 1: 179  
 Kongeriget Danmark (see Denmark)  
 Kongeriket Norge (see Norway)  
 Kongo people (see Bakongo people)  
 Königsherg 4: 171-299  
 Konin 4: 194  
 Koninkrijk België (see Belgium)  
 Koninkrijk der Nederlanden (see Netherlands)  
 Konkomba people 1: 157  
 Kontar Cayam 3: 116  
 Konungariket Sverige (see Sweden)  
 Konya 3: 58  
 Kooris (see Aborigines)  
 Kootenay National Park 2: 15  
 Koper 4: 199-200  
 Kopet Dag 4: 307  
 Kopparbeig 4: 143  
 Koppen Wladimir 5: 142  
 Korah Mount 4: 247  
 Korçe 4: 233-234, 235  
 Korçe Lake 4: 234  
 Kordofan 1: 76-77, 78  
 Korea 3: 167-168, 192-195, 200-5: 97 (see also North Korea, South Korea)  
 Korea Bay 3: 183-185  
 Korea Strait 3: 187  
 Korean Artist Proletariat Federation 3: 186  
 Koran people 3: 20-172, 4: 312  
 Korean War 2: 34  
 Korhogo 1: 152  
 Korman Maxime Carol 5: 37  
 Kottati Park 4: 243  
 Koroma Lake 4: 15  
 Koror 5: 40  
 Koryak District 4: 299  
 Koryak Mountains 4: 297  
 Koryō dynasty 3: 185-186  
 Kosciuszko Mount 5: 2-8  
 Kosciuszko Jadenz 4: 196  
 Koshi 3: 122  
 Košice 4: 197-198  
 Kosovo 4: 232, 236-245, 246-247, 257  
 Kostae Island 5: 21-22  
 Kossi 1: 147  
 Kossou Lake 1: 151-152  
 Kossuth, Lajos 4: 244, 256  
 Kostroma 4: 299  
 Koszalin 4: 194  
 Kota Baharu 3: 307  
 Kota Kinabalu 3: 307-309  
 Kota people (see Bakota people)  
 Kotelnui Islands 5: 88  
 Kotoko people 1: 65-211  
 Kotor 4: 246  
 Kotte 3: 129  
 Kotto 1: 215  
 Kotuku 5: 26  
 Koudougou 1: 147  
 Koulou 1: 217  
 Koulkoro 1: 67  
 Koumac 5: 39  
 Kountche, Seyin 1: 74  
 Kouranko people 1: 161  
 Kouron 3: 63  
 Kountenga 1: 147  
 Kourou 2: 338  
 Kowloon Peninsula 3: 339, 340  
 Koxinga 3: 208  
 Kozata National Park 4: 236  
 Kozloduy 4: 240  
 Kpalime 1: 180  
 Kpelle people 1: 161-166  
 Kragujevac 4: 245  
 Krajina region 4: 258  
 Krakatau 5: 135  
 Krakatur Forest Reserve 3: 301  
 Krakow 4: 193-194, 195-206  
 Krakow University of 4: 196  
 Kralendijk 2: 339  
 Kranj 4: 200  
 Kransberg (mountain) 1: 293  
 Kras (karst) region 4: 199-242  
 Krasnodar 4: 299  
 Krasnovodsk 4: 307-308  
 Krasnoyarsk 4: 299  
 Kratič 3: 251  
 Kraus, Hans Joachim 3: 43  
 Kraus, Karl 4: 176  
 Kravanh Mountains 3: 250-251  
 Kravchuk Leonid 4: 311  
 Kredarica 4: 199  
 Kriemlin 4: 313  
 Krihi 1: 212  
 Krio language 1: 177  
 Krishna River 3: 108  
 Kristiansund 4: 138-139  
 Kristianstad 4: 143  
 Kriyov Rog 4: 309  
 Krika River 4: 242  
 Kronoberg 4: 143  
 Kisko 4: 200-243  
 Kru people 1: 152-166  
 Kruger Paul 1: 310  
 Kruger National Park 1: 297  
 Krun Thep (see Bangkok)  
 Ksara 3: 47  
 Ku Klux Klan 2: 7-12  
 Kuala Belait 3: 294-295  
 Kuala Lumpur 3: 6-306-307, 308-309, 313  
 Kuala Terengganu 3: 308  
 Kuantan 3: 308-309  
 Kublai Khan 3: 9-186, 199-204, 253-304, 351  
 Kuching 3: 307-308  
 Kula al 3: 39  
 Kufra 1: 22-23, 24  
 Kujari Nature Reserve 1: 157  
 Kukuka people 1: 180  
 Kulon Peninsula National Park 3: 301  
 Kulvab 4: 306  
 Kum River 3: 187  
 Kumamoto 3: 192  
 Kumasi 1: 157-158, 159  
 Kumba 1: 212  
 Kumene R. Mazizi 1: 300  
 Kūm-gang-san 3: 183  
 Kunduz 3: 14  
 Kunlun Mountains 3: 2-170  
 Kunsan 3: 190  
 Kunsan Plain 3: 187  
 Kuomintang (Nationalist Party) [China] 3: 181-208  
 Kuopio 4: 128, 129  
 Kupar River 4: 242  
 Kupang 3: 300, 302  
 Kura River 4: 287  
 Kurdish people 3: 12-32, 37, 39-40, 58-60  
 Kurdistan 3: 33, 37  
 Kūrdzhali 4: 239  
 Kurgan 4: 299  
 Kurgan Tyube 4: 306  
 Kuria Muria Islands 3: 49  
 Kurnell 5: 14  
 Kuroshio Current 3: 188, 206  
 Kursk 4: 299  
 Kurisk Magnetic Anomaly 4: 302  
 Kuru River 3: 105  
 Kurumba 3: 120  
 Kushan dynasty 3: 16, 115-127  
 Kuta 3: 313  
 Kutarai 4: 290  
 Kuthodaw (pagoda) 3: 268  
 Kuwait (city) 3: 44, 45  
 Kuwait (country) 3: 6, 12-40, 44-46, 64-5: 164  
 Kuybyshev 4: 299, 300  
 Kuzbass region 4: 300, 302  
 Kuzbass River 4: 300  
 Kwa people 1: 166  
 Kwabena 1: 158  
 Kwahu Plateau 1: 156  
 Kwajalein Atoll 5: 21  
 Kwakwe 1: 279  
 Kwakiutl people 2: 15, 45  
 Kwakwani 2: 201  
 KwaNdebele people 1: 297  
 Kwangju 3: 188-190  
 Kwango River 1: 241  
 Kwanza River 1: 240-275  
 Kwara 1: 169  
 Kwazulu people 1: 297  
 Kwe people 1: 180  
 Kwele people (see Bakwele people)  
 Kweneng 1: 278  
 Kwilu River 1: 243  
 Kyini 4: 129  
 Kyoga Lake 1: 237  
 Kyōngbok Palace 3: 210  
 Kyūnggi-do 3: 188  
 Kyōngsang 3: 188  
 Kyoto 3: 192-193, 193-212  
 Kyarissosommo (mountain) 3: 24  
 Kyriaki Dimokratia Kibers (Cumburiyet) (see Cyprus)  
 Kyrena 3: 25  
 Kyrgyz people 3: 13-4: 284, 294-306  
 Kyrgyz Republic (see Kyrgyzstan)  
 Kyrgyzstan 3: 7-4: 4-284, 293-294  
 Kyushu 3: 190-196  
 Kyristendil 4: 239  
 Kyzyl Kum 4: 291-311, 312  
 Kyzil Orda 4: 291-292, 292  
 L  
 La (see substantive word except as listed below)  
 La Altagracia 2: 154  
 La Brea 2: 167  
 La Criba 2: 98  
 La Desirade Island 2: 338  
 La Digue Island 1: 248  
 La Estrella 2: 154  
 La Goulette 1: 32, 34  
 La Grille (mountain) 1: 280  
 La Guaira 2: 207-209  
 La Guajira 2: 250  
 La Habana 2: 148  
 La Harpe, Frederic Cesar 4: 204  
 La Kéran Forest Reserve 1: 179  
 La Lamentin 2: 338  
 La Libertad (El Salvador) 2: 91-110  
 La Libertad (Peru) 2: 258  
 La Malinche (Mount Malinche) 2: 99  
 La Palma Island 1: 338  
 La Pampa 2: 295  
 La Paz (city, Bolivia) 2: 238-239, 241  
 La Paz (department, Bolivia) 2: 239  
 La Paz (El Salvador) 2: 91  
 La Paz (Guatemala) 2: 97  
 La Paz Cathedral of 2: 164  
 La Plata 2: 297  
 La Punta Peninsula 2: 113  
 La Rioja (Argentina) 2: 295-296  
 La Rioja (Spain) 4: 90  
 La Romana 2: 154-155  
 La Spezia 4: 21  
 La Tène, culture 4: 69, 76-81  
 La Trinité 2: 338  
 La Union 2: 91-92  
 La Vega 2: 154  
 La Venta 2: 6  
 Laayoun 1: 28  
 Labatlan 4: 255  
 Labe 1: 160, 161  
 Labibela, Ethiopian monarch 1: 111  
 Labor Party (Norway) 4: 140  
 Labor Party (Antigua and Barbuda) 2: 142  
 Labor Party (Barbados) 2: 146  
 Labor Party (Great Britain) 4: 75-78  
 Labor Party (Malta) 4: 28  
 Labrador 2: 11-13, 21, 5: 89  
 Labrador Current 2: 19, 5: 86  
 Labuan 3: 306-308  
 Lac (Albama) 4: 235  
 Lac (Chad) 1: 63  
 Lacalle Luis 2: 308  
 Lacadive Islands 3: 106-109  
 Lachine Rapids 2: 22  
 Lac 4: 68  
 Ladakh Range 3: 106-133  
 Ladinos 2: 93-94  
 Ladislav II Jagello king of Poland 4: 136  
 Ladoga Lake 4: 2-297  
 Lady Knox Geyser 5: 41  
 Lac 5: 29-30  
 Laghman 3: 14  
 Lighthouse 1: 11-12  
 Lago Agrio 2: 255  
 Lagoa Santa 2: 82  
 Lagoda region 4: 302  
 Lagos 1: 6-145, 168-169, 170-171, 172  
 Laguna Blanca National Park 2: 293  
 Laguna de Bay 3: 313  
 Lagunas de Montebello National Park 2: 101  
 Laguria 4: 21  
 Lahabi Aziz 1: 30  
 Lahore 3: 124-125, 126-127, 137  
 Lahout 1: 13  
 Lahri 4: 129  
 Lai Chau 3: 263-264  
 Laizao 3: 351  
 Lakhmid dynasty 3: 21  
 Laki (volcano) 4: 131  
 Lakota 1: 152  
 Lakschadweep Islands 3: 106-109  
 Lalikha 1: 111-118  
 Lalla Khedija Mountain 1: 11  
 Lam Dong 3: 263  
 Lama Buddhist Church 3: 203  
 Lambarene 1: 219-220  
 Lambayene 2: 258  
 Lami 5: 18  
 Lamine Bey 1: 31  
 Lampang 3: 259  
 Lamphun 3: 259  
 Lampacus 3: 343  
 Lampung 3: 302  
 Lamu 1: 224-226  
 Lan Na kingdom 3: 256-259  
 Lan Xang kingdom 3: 255, 256  
 Lan Yu (island) 3: 206  
 Lancaster Sound 5: 89  
 Landivan, Rafael 2: 106  
 Lang Bian, Plateau du 3: 262  
 Lang Son 3: 263-267  
 Languedoc Roussillon 4: 66  
 Lamin Mountain 2: 291  
 Lamin National Park 2: 291  
 Lankasuka kingdom 3: 309  
 Lannois, Philippe 3: 52  
 Lanzarote Island 1: 338  
 Lanzhou 3: 171  
 Lao people 3: 254-255, 256, 258  
 Lao People's Democratic Republic 3: 254 (see also Laos)  
 Laodicea 3: 53, 54, 55  
 Laos 3: 6-9, 245, 254-256, 260, 266-268  
 Lapland 4: 1-128, 129  
 Lappi 4: 129  
 Lappish language 4: 128, 138  
 Lapp people 4: 121, 122, 128, 129, 130, 138, 140, 142

- Lápsaki (I ampsacus) 3: 343  
 Laptev Dmitry 5: 89  
 Laptev, Khanton 5: 89  
 Laptev Sea 4: 313, 5: 85, 88  
 Lara 2: 207  
 Lara, Sierra de 2: 205, 211  
 Larache 1: 29  
 Laramie Mountains 2: 25  
 Larderello 4: 32  
 Larissa 4: 14, 15, 16  
 Larinaca 3: 25, 26  
 Larour Abdallah 1: 30  
 Las Americas 2: 155  
 Las Palmas (city, Spain) 4: 90  
 Las Palmas (province, Canary Islands) 1: 338  
 Las Peñas Islands 2: 112  
 Las Lunas 2: 148  
 Las Vegas 2: 40  
 Lascaux Grotto 5: 174  
 Lassalle Ferdinand 4: 186  
 Lasta region 1: 111  
 Latakia 3: 53, 54, 55  
 Lateran Pacts 4: 13  
 Latin America 2: 4, 5, 8, 43, 81, 116 (*see also* Caribbean Islands, Caribbean Sea, Central America, Mexico, South America)  
 Latin American Association for Integration (ALADI) 2: 84  
 Latin American Economic System (SILA) 2: 84  
 Latin Empire, Eastern 4: 17  
 Latin language 4: 8  
 Latin people 4: 20, 24  
 Latina Valley 4: 20  
 Latvia 4: 4, 121, 122, 131, 135, 146  
 Latvian language 4: 122  
 Latvian people 4: 134, 135  
 Latvijas Republika (*see* Latvia)  
 Lau 5: 18  
 Laue National Park 2: 263  
 Laurentian region 2: 18  
 Laurie Island 5: 95  
 Lauriston 2: 160  
 Lausanne 4: 202  
 Lausanne Treaty of 1: 25  
 Lautoka 5: 18  
 Lavalleja 2: 306  
 Lavalleja Juan Antonio 2: 306  
 Lawler Ray 5: 17  
 Lawrence D H 4: 78  
 Lawrence T E (of Arabia) 3: 17  
 Lawson Henry 5: 16  
 Lawress Halldor Kiljan 4: 132, 133  
 Layc Camara 1: 162  
 Layou River 2: 151  
 Lazio 4: 21, 24  
 Le Blond Alexandre Jean Baptiste 4: 303  
 Le Corbusier 2: 212  
 Le dynasty 3: 265  
 Le Havre 4: 64, 68, 69  
 Le Marc Jakob 5: 35  
 Le Thanh Khoi 3: 10  
 Le Thanh Tong 3: 265  
 League of Nations 2: 23, 43, 4: 10, 235  
 Lebanon 3: 6, 11, 12, 46–48, 63, 65, 66  
 Lebanon Mountains 3: 41, 46, 47, 48, 52, 53  
 Lebnstrum 4: 12  
 Lebombo Mountains 1: 301  
 Lebowa people 1: 297  
 Lechovo 2: 208  
 Lee Kwan Yew 3: 312  
 Lee River 4: 86  
 Lee Teng hui 3: 208  
 Leeds 4: 73, 74  
 Leeward Islands 2: 142, 164, 335, 338, 339, 5: 40  
 Lélim Faunal Reserve 1: 217  
 Legagno, Battle of 4: 25  
 Legazpi 3: 296  
 Legazpi Miguel Lopez de 3: 298  
 Legnica 4: 194  
 Leinster 4: 81  
 Leipzig 4: 181, 182  
 Letha River 4: 174  
 Lek River 4: 189  
 Lékomou 1: 217  
 Lemberg 4: 309, 310  
 Lempa River 2: 90, 93  
 Lempa Valley 2: 90  
 Lempira 2: 97  
 Lem'una kingdom of 1: 70  
 Lena Basin 4: 302  
 Lena River 3: 3, 4: 283, 297, 5: 85, 89  
 Lengwe National Park 1: 287  
 Lenin Pk 4: 305  
 Lenin Vladimir Ilich 4: 10, 304, 314  
 Lennu, Pk 4: 293  
 Leningrad (*see* St Petersburg)  
 Leninism 4: 301  
 Leo III pope 4: 25  
 Léon (city) 2: 109, 110  
 Léon (department) 2: 109  
 Leonardo da Vinci 4: 26  
 Leopardi Giacomo 4: 26  
 Leopold I king of Belgium 4: 63  
 Leopold II king of Belgium 4: 63  
 Leopold III king of Belgium 4: 63  
 Leopoldine dynasty 4: 175  
 Lepontine Alps 4: 18, 19  
 Lepus Magna 1: 24, 46  
 Lérab 1: 282  
 Lerma 2: 104  
 Lerwick 4: 72  
 Les Cayes 2: 162  
 Les Samtes Island 2: 338  
 Lesotho Kingdom of 1: 5, 281, 282  
 Lesser Antilles (*see* Antilles, Lesser)  
 Lesser Armenia 3: 59  
 Lesser Caucasus 4: 285  
 Lesser Himalayas 3: 104, 121 (*see also* Himalaya Mountains)  
 Lesser Horde 4: 293  
 Lesser Sunda Islands 3: 300, 307  
 Lessing Gotthold Ephraim 4: 186  
 Leszno 4: 194  
 Letea Island 4: 257  
 Letlakane 1: 279  
 Letts 4: 134, 135  
 Levant (*see* Israel, Jordan)  
 Lebanon Syria (Turkey)  
 Leveque Pierre 4: 7  
 Levnick (The Bottom) 2: 339  
 Levkas 4: 14  
 Lewis Meriwether 2: 11, 28  
 Lewis Roy 1: 177  
 Lhasa 3: 171, 173, 211–212  
 Li Mount 3: 178  
 Li Bo (Li Po) 3: 179, 180  
 Li Peng 3: 182  
 Liao He (river) 3: 171  
 Liao He Plain 3: 175  
 Liaoning 3: 172, 175  
 Liberal Democratic Party (Japan) 3: 194  
 Liberal Party (Spain) 4: 94  
 Liberal Reformist Party (Australia) 5: 17  
 Liberia 4: 178  
 Liberia 1: 5, 143, 144, 165, 167, 182  
 Libertad Plaza de la 2: 116  
 Libertador 2: 244  
 Liberty Island 2: 47  
 Liberty Party (PLD) [Dominica] 2: 152  
 Libu 1: 24  
 Libreville 1: 5, 219, 220  
 Libya 1: 5, 8, 9, 10, 21, 25, 36, 65, 4: 27, 5: 164  
 Libyan Desert 1: 22, 35  
 Libyan people 1: 9, 17, 24, 34  
 Licancabur Mount 2: 238, 290  
 Licchavi dynasty 3: 13  
 Lie, Jonas 4: 140  
 Liechtenstein 4: 4, 172, 187–188, 206  
 Liège (city, Belgium) 4: 61, 62  
 Liège (province, Belgium) 4: 61  
 Liège (principality, The Netherlands) 4: 191  
 Lielupe River 4: 134  
 Liepaja 4: 134  
 Lietuvos Respublika (*see* Lithuania)  
 Liffey River 4: 79, 80  
 Lifou Island 5: 39  
 Liga Filipina 3: 299  
 Ligg Kasa 1: 111, 112  
 Liguria 4: 20  
 Ligurian Alps 4: 18  
 Ligurian people 4: 20, 24  
 Lika River 4: 242  
 Likiep Atoll 5: 20  
 Likouala 1: 217  
 Likud Party 3: 44  
 Lille 4: 64, 66–67  
 Lilingwa 1: 5, 286, 287  
 Lima (city) 2: 2, 5, 7, 164, 256, 257, 258, 260  
 Lima (department) 2: 258  
 Limassol 3: 25, 26  
 Limbe 1: 212  
 Limburg 4: 61, 190  
 Limburg House of 4: 83  
 Limerick 4: 80, 81  
 Limon (city) 2: 88, 89  
 Limon (department) 2: 88  
 Limon Bay of 2: 113  
 Limousin 4: 66  
 Limpopo River 1: 3, 278, 291, 296, 297, 305, 306  
 Lincoln Abraham 2: 42, 46  
 Lincoln Memorial 2: 47  
 Lincoln Sea 5: 85  
 Lincolnshire 4: 75  
 Linden 2: 700, 201  
 Lindi 1: 235  
 Line Islands (Kiribati) 5: 19, 20  
 Linl Walter 5: 37  
 Linkoping 4: 142, 143  
 Lincoln Carolus 4: 144  
 Linz 4: 173, 175  
 Lions Gull of 4: 64  
 Lipetsk 4: 299  
 Lipno reservoir 4: 177  
 Lisay 2: 259  
 Lisboa Antonio Francisco 2: 198  
 Lisbon (Lisboa) 4: 4, 84, 85, 86, 95, 96  
 Litani River 3: 47  
 Literary Society of Ripe 4: 45  
 Lithuania 4: 4, 171, 122, 135, 136, 146, 171, 313  
 Lithuania Grand Duchy of 4: 136, 303  
 Lithuanian language 4: 122  
 Lithuanian people 4: 136  
 Littoral (Equatorial Guinea) 1: 221  
 Little America 5: 95  
 Little Cayman Island 2: 336  
 Little Hungarian Plain 4: 253  
 Little Italy 2: 47  
 Little Mermaid 4: 146  
 Little Mountain 2: 439  
 Little Staircase River 1: 176, 177  
 Littoral (Cameroon) 1: 212  
 Liverpool 4: 73, 76  
 Livingstone (Maramba) 1: 303  
 Livingstone David 1: 234, 236, 278, 288, 302, 304, 309  
 Livingstone Falls 1: 241, 247  
 Livonia 4: 135  
 Livonian people 4: 134  
 Livorno 4: 21, 23  
 Livy 4: 8, 25  
 Ljubljana 4: 4, 199, 200  
 Llanos de Mojoc River 2: 238  
 Lullailaco Mount 2: 290  
 Loo River 2: 243  
 Loango, kingdom of 1: 218  
 Lobate 1: 278  
 Lobaye 1: 215  
 Lohi people 1: 147, 148, 152  
 Lobito 1: 275, 276  
 Locarno 4: 204  
 Loch Lomond 4: 72  
 Loch Ness 4: 72  
 Locke John 4: 77  
 Lodi Peace of 4: 26  
 Lodi dynasty 3: 116  
 Lodomeria 4: 196  
 Lodz 4: 194, 195  
 Loess Plateau 3: 170, 171, 210  
 Lofa 1: 166  
 Lofa River 1: 165  
 Logan Mount 2: 13  
 Logau 3: 14  
 Logone Occidental 1: 63  
 Logone Oriental 1: 63  
 Logone River 1: 62, 211, 212, 214  
 Loue River 4: 64, 65  
 Louja 2: 254  
 Lokaja 1: 171  
 Lolland Falster 4: 124  
 Lolo 1: 220  
 Loma Mountains 1: 160, 165, 176, 177  
 Loma Petra earthquake 2: 26  
 Lomavitr 5: 18  
 Lomami River 1: 241  
 Lombard kingdom 4: 11  
 Lombard League 4: 25  
 Lombards 4: 4, 8, 20, 25  
 Lombardy 4: 21, 22, 21, 26  
 Lombok Island 3: 300  
 Lomé 1: 5, 179, 180, 181  
 Lomond Loch 4: 72  
 Lomonosov Ridge 5: 85  
 Lomzo 4: 194  
 Lon Nol 3: 253  
 Lona Park 1: 275  
 London 4: 4, 8, 71, 72, 73, 74, 76, 95  
 London Tower of 4: 95  
 Long An 3: 263  
 Long Island (Bahamas) 2: 143  
 Longshan people 3: 176  
 Longyearbyen 5: 87  
 Lonrot Elias 4: 130  
 Loos Adolph 4: 176  
 Lop Buri 3: 259  
 Lopez Cape 1: 219  
 Lopez Carlos Antonio 2: 302, 304  
 Lopez Duarte 1: 245  
 Lopez Francisco Solano 2: 304  
 Lopez de Villalobos Ruy 3: 298  
 Lopez Portillo Jose 2: 107  
 Loquillo Sierra de 2: 340  
 Lorestan 3: 33  
 Loreto 2: 258  
 Lorne Luthol 4: 72  
 Lorraine 4: 66, 68  
 Loris Guillaume de 4: 69  
 Los Angeles (Chile) 2: 246  
 Los Angeles (US) 2: 5, 27, 32, 33, 38, 39, 40  
 Los Glaciares National Park 2: 293  
 Los Hermanos Island 2: 205  
 Los Nevados National Park 2: 249  
 Los Rios 2: 254  
 Los Roques Atoll 2: 205  
 Los Santos 2: 112  
 Lost Generation 2: 43  
 Lothal 3: 114  
 Lotharingia 4: 83  
 Louang Namtha 3: 255  
 Louangphrabang 3: 254, 255, 256, 268  
 Loubomo 1: 217  
 Louga 1: 174  
 Louis I Holy Roman emperor 4: 185  
 Louis II king of Germany 4: 185  
 Louis XII king of France 4: 26  
 Louis XIV king of France 2: 9, 4: 9, 70, 96  
 Louis XV king of France 2: 16  
 Louise Lake 2: 45  
 Louisiana Islands 5: 28  
 Louisiana 2: 31, 36, 37, 41  
 Louisiana Purchase 2: 9  
 Louté 1: 218  
 L'ouverture, Toussaint 2: 155, 162, 170  
 Lovech 4: 239  
 Low Isles 5: 8  
 Lower Canada 2: 22, 23  
 Lower Falls 2: 29  
 Lower Juba 1: 115  
 Lower Nile River 1: 19  
 Lower River (council, The Gambia) 1: 155  
 Lower Shebelle 1: 115  
 Lowveld 1: 301  
 Loyalty Islands 5: 39  
 Lu people 3: 258  
 Luabala River 1: 241, 247  
 Luanda 1: 5, 274, 275, 276  
 Luanda Plateau 1: 247  
 Luang Prabang Range 3: 254  
 Luangwa National Park South 1: 303  
 Luangwa River 1: 302  
 Luanshya 1: 303  
 Luapula 1: 303  
 Luapula River 1: 302  
 Lu'a people 1: 304  
 Lubana Lake 4: 134  
 Lubango 1: 276  
 Lubbers Ruud 4: 192  
 Lublin 1: 194  
 Lublin Union of 4: 122, 196, 289  
 Lubombo 1: 301  
 Lubumbashi 1: 241, 243, 244  
 Lubumbian people 4: 24  
 Lucia 4: 71  
 Luck 4: 181  
 Lucerne 4: 202  
 Lucicutus 4: 8  
 Luderitz 1: 294, 295  
 Ludlam Harry 5: 94  
 Lugano 4: 202, 204  
 Lugansk 4: 309, 310  
 Luganville 5: 37  
 Lugenda River 1: 287  
 Luk 4: 61  
 Luis I king of Portugal 4: 87  
 Lukuga River 1: 208, 228  
 Lulea 4: 144  
 Lumbini 3: 122, 123  
 Lumumba Patrice 1: 246  
 Lunat 3: 294  
 Lund Cathedral 4: 125  
 Lullu people 1: 275, 304  
 Lunenburg Heath 4: 181  
 Lung 1: 178  
 Luoyang 3: 349  
 Luro River 1: 291  
 Lusaka 1: 5, 302, 303, 304  
 Lushan, Guy de 3: 26  
 Lusitania 4: 87, 93  
 Lusitanian people 4: 85, 87, 185  
 Lut Desert (Dasht-e Lut) 3: 31  
 Lutetia Parisium 4: 67  
 Lullullah Mosque 3: 34  
 Luther Martin 4: 9, 186  
 Lutheranism 4: 125, 126, 128, 133, 134, 136, 142, 186, 253  
 Luxembourg (Belgian province) 4: 61  
 Luxembourg (city) 4: 4, 82  
 Luxembourg (country) 4: 4, 62, 82, 83  
 Luxembourg Grand Duchy of 4: 191  
 Luxembourg dynasty 4: 179  
 Luxor (city) 1: 17, 20  
 Luxor (temple) 1: 20, 36  
 Luzon 3: 296, 297, 313  
 Lvov 4: 309, 310  
 Ly dynasty 3: 265  
 Lyakhov Islands 5: 88  
 Lycurgus of Sparta 4: 7  
 Lydhvældidh Island (*see* Iceland)  
 Lydia (Babylonia) 3: 343  
 Lingsu Plateau 3: 187  
 Lyne, John 3: 28  
 Lyons 4: 8, 64, 66, 67, 68, 69  
 Lyttelton 5: 27

## M

- M33 spiral galaxy 5: 171  
 Maatsoomadulu 3: 120  
 Ma'an 3: 29  
 Maas River 4: 188, 189

- Maastricht 4: 189  
 Maastricht, Treaty of 4: 6, 10, 203  
 Macao 3: 167, 180, 210, 211, 340  
 McAuley, James 5: 17  
 McCarthyism 2: 43  
 MacCarty Island 1: 155  
 McClintock, Francis 5: 89  
 McClure, Robert 5: 89  
 McCine, Hugh Raymond 5: 16  
 Macdhui, Ben 4: 71  
 McDonald Island 3: 339  
 Macdonnell Range 5: 8  
 Macedonia 4: 4, 14, 15, 16, 17, 24, 231, 232, 236, 247, 248, 258  
 Macedonian Empire 3: 59, 344, 345, 4: 12  
 Macedonian people 3: 16, 26, 55, 4: 233, 248, 290  
 Macenta 1: 162  
 Maceo, Antonio 2: 150  
 McGregor, Craig 5: 10, 13, 14, 15  
 Machado, Gerardo 2: 150  
 Machuco 1: 337  
 Machu-Picchu 2: 82, 264  
 Maenag Nguema, Francisco 1: 222  
 Maena region 1: 66, 67, 68  
 Mackay, Jessie 5: 28  
 Mackenzie, Alexander 5: 89  
 Mackenzie Mountains 2: 13  
 Mackenzie River 2: 13  
 Mackinder, Halford 4: 283  
 McKinley, Mount 2: 26, 45  
 McLuhan, Herbert Marshall 2: 23  
 McMurdo Antarctic station 5: 95  
 Macquarie Island 5: 38, 91  
 Mactan 3: 298  
 Mactaris 1: 34  
 Macuata 5: 18  
 Madagascar 1: 1, 5, 273, 281, 283, 286, 309, 310, 3: 347  
 Madang 5: 29, 30  
 Madden Lake 2: 112  
 Madena 1: 337, 4: 84  
 Madena River 2: 238  
 Madera, Francisco 2: 106  
 Madera (volcano) 2: 108  
 Madhya Pradesh 3: 109  
 Madimoula 1: 162  
 Madinat 'Isa 3: 23  
 Madison, James 2: 41  
 Madone Mountains 4: 19  
 Madras 3: 106, 109, 111, 113, 114  
 Madrasah ye Madai-i-Shah 3: 34, 66  
 Madre, Sierra 2: 81, 85, 100  
 Madre de Dios 2: 258  
 Madre del Sur, Sierra 2: 99, 116  
 Madre Oriental, Sierra 2: 99, 100, 115  
 Madrid 4: 4, 31, 88, 89, 90  
 Madrid, Treaty of 2: 159  
 Madraz 2: 109  
 Mdura 3: 305  
 Maeander River 3: 57, 58  
 Maestra, Sierra 2: 147, 149, 161  
 Maestre 4: 21  
 Maetclinc, Maurice 4: 63  
 Maewa Island 5: 36, 37  
 Maleteng 1: 282  
 Malta 1: 233  
 Maga, Hubert 1: 146  
 Magadan 4: 299, 300  
 Magadha kingdom 3: 103, 115  
 Magallanes 2: 244, 245, 246  
 Magallanes y Antártica 2: 244  
 Magdalena 2: 250  
 Magellan, Ferdinand 2: 263, 297, 309, 3: 298; 5: 5, 38, 125  
 Magellan, Strait of 2: 243, 245, 263, 291  
 Maggiore, Lake 4: 18  
 Maghreb region 1: 9, 10, 11, 12, 20, 29, 30, 31, 34, 335 (see also Algeria; Egypt; Libya; Morocco; Tunisia)  
 Maghreb Union 1: 10  
 Magliore, Paul E. 2: 162  
 Magna Carta 4: 77  
 Magna Graecia 4: 24  
 Magnitogorsk 4: 300  
 Magnus Eriksson, king of Sweden 4: 130  
 Magsaysay, Ramón 3: 297  
 Magwe (Magway) 3: 247  
 Magyar Koztársaság (see Hungary)  
 Magyan language 4: 253  
 Magyar people 4: 8, 25, 179, 200, 242, 243, 250, 252, 256, 257, 258, 296  
 Mahabharat Range 3: 121  
 Mahabharata 3: 114, 253  
 Mahacca-Berhuc 2: 200  
 Mahajanga 1: 284  
 Mahakali 3: 122  
 Mahakam River 3: 301  
 Mahalapye 1: 278  
 Mahalla el Kubra, El 1: 18  
 Mahan people 3: 185  
 Mahanadi River 3: 108  
 Maharashtra 3: 109  
 Mahari Mountains 1: 233  
 Mahaweli Ganga River 3: 128, 129  
 Mahayana Buddhism 3: 253, 258, 309  
 Mahdi 1: 76, 78  
 Mahdia 1: 33  
 Mahe Island 1: 232  
 Maheudra 3: 123  
 Mahmud II, sultan of Ottoman Empire 3: 60  
 Mahmud of Ghazna 3: 116, 127  
 Mahote (see Mayotte)  
 Mahra 3: 61  
 Mahratto Plateau 3: 107, 108  
 Mahwit, Al- 3: 61  
 Maidan-i-Shah Plaza 3: 44  
 Maidombé 1: 244  
 Maiduguri 1: 171  
 Maiko National Park 1: 247  
 Main kingdom (Arabia) 3: 18, 62  
 Main Range (Malaysia) 3: 306  
 Maine 2: 31  
 Maio 1: 150  
 Maio Island 1: 149, 5: 40  
 Maio people 3: 255, 258  
 Maipo River 2: 243  
 Maquetia 2: 207  
 Maui, Lucy 1: 239, 282  
 Maui, Jose Antonio 2: 210  
 Majapahit Empire 3: 298, 304, 312  
 Major, John 4: 78  
 Majuro 5: 4  
 Majuro Atoll 5: 21  
 Maka people 2: 310  
 Makamba 1: 209  
 Makarakombon, Mount 5: 31  
 Makarezos, Nicholas 4: 17  
 Makarika, Lake 1: 305  
 Makarios 3: 26  
 Makassar Strait 3: 300  
 Makeni 1: 177  
 Makeyevka 4: 310  
 Makgadikgadi Pans Game Reserve 1: 278  
 Makgadikgadi Salt Pan 1: 277  
 Makira 5: 31  
 Makoko 1: 218  
 Makonde people 1: 293  
 Makta 1: 34  
 Maktum, Rashid al- 3: 28  
 Maktum Quli 4: 308  
 Makua people 1: 284  
 Malabo 1: 5, 221, 222  
 Malacca 3: 304, 307, 308, 309, 310  
 Malacca, Strait of 3: 300, 309, 310  
 Malacca Kingdom 3: 309, 310  
 Maladuna Island 3: 300  
 Málaga 4: 90, 92  
 Malagarasi River 1: 208, 233  
 Malagasy (see Madagascar)  
 Malagasy people 1: 232, 273, 274, 280, 286, 309, 310, 335, 336  
 Malaita Island 5: 31  
 Malakal threshold 1: 75  
 Maluku (see Moluccas)  
 Malambo 2: 237  
 Malange 1: 276  
 Malanje 1: 276  
 Malanville 1: 74  
 Malaren, Lake 4: 141, 145  
 Malaspina glacier 2: 26  
 Malawali Island 3: 306  
 Malawi 1: 5, 286-388  
 Malawi, Lake 1: 105, 233, 286, 287, 290, 291  
 Malawi people 1: 287  
 Malay Archipelago 3: 6, 293-314  
 Malay Peninsula 3: 257, 259, 260, 306, 307, 308, 309, 310, 313  
 Malay peoples 1: 284, 3: 129, 258, 294, 296, 301, 304, 307, 309, 311  
 Malayo-Polynesian languages 3: 296; 5: 151  
 Malayo-Polynesian people 3: 185, 188, 206  
 Malaysia 3: 6, 260, 306-310, 313  
 Malaysia, East 3: 306, 307, 308  
 Malaysia, West 3: 306, 308  
 Malaysian people 5: 16  
 Malayu kingdom 3: 304  
 Malcolm X 2: 44  
 Maldives 3: 6, 119-120, 131, 134, 351  
 Maldonado 2: 306  
 Male (see Maldives)  
 Malebo Pool 1: 247  
 Malekula 5: 37  
 Malesani, Emilio 3: 109  
 Malakasso forest preserve 1: 179  
 Malgachitude 1: 286  
 Mali 1: 5, 7, 61, 65-68, 79, 80  
 Mali Empire 1: 67-68, 74, 80, 153, 164, 175, 181  
 Malibatso River 1: 282  
 Malin Head 4: 79  
 Malinche National Park 2: 101  
 Malindi 1: 224, 226  
 Malindi people 1: 66, 154, 174, 181, 248  
 Malinke people 1: 68, 152, 161, 163  
 Malig, Lake 4: 234  
 Maljen Mountain 4: 245  
 Mall, The (Washington, D.C.) 2: 47  
 Malla dynasty 3: 123  
 Malmberget 4: 143  
 Malmo 4: 142, 143  
 Malmolms 4: 143  
 Malo 5: 37  
 Malo Sa'ololo Tuto'atasi o Samoa i Sifiso 5: 3, 4, 42-33  
 Malombe, Lake 1: 287  
 Malonga, J. 1: 218  
 Malout, David 5: 17  
 Malta 4: 4, 27-28, 31  
 Malta, Republic of 4: 12  
 Maltahohe 1: 294  
 Maluti Mountains 1: 281-282, 282  
 Malvinas Islands 2: 291, 336, 5: 91  
 Malvinas War 2: 299  
 Mamaloni, Solomon 5: 32  
 Manabéré 1: 215  
 Mambula 1: 279  
 Mamed-Veli 4: 308  
 Mamelukes 1: 20  
 Mamalaka al-'Arabiya as Sa'udiya, Al- (see Saudi Arabia)  
 Mamalaka al-Maghrebia, Al- (see Morocco)  
 Mamalaka al-Urdunniya al-Hashimiya, Al- (see Jordan)  
 Mamluks 3: 43, 55  
 Mammari, Mouloud 1: 16  
 Mammoth Hot Springs 2: 29  
 Mamoré River 2: 238, 239  
 Ma'mun, al- 3: 39  
 Man (Ivory Coast) 1: 152  
 Man, Isle of 4: 57, 71, 73  
 Man unassif 1: 151  
 Man people 3: 255, 258  
 Manabi 2: 254  
 Managua (city) 2: 108, 109  
 Managua (department) 2: 109  
 Managua, Lake 2: 108, 115  
 Manamah, Al- 3: 6, 22, 23  
 Manang River Valley 5: 172  
 Manantah Dam 1: 175  
 Manas River 3: 104  
 Manaus 2: 189, 194, 212  
 Manawatu 5: 25  
 Manchester (England) 4: 73, 74, 76  
 Manchester (Jamaica) 2: 157  
 Manchu dynasty (see Qing dynasty)  
 Manchuria 3: 2, 7, 168, 171, 172, 175, 180, 182, 195, 200  
 Manda people 1: 166  
 Mandalay 3: 246, 247, 248, 249, 268  
 Mandara Range 1: 211  
 Mandarin Chinese language 3: 206  
 Mandela, Nelson 1: 297, 300  
 Mandeville 2: 157  
 Mandingo Empire 1: 7, 68  
 Mandingo people (see Malinke people)  
 Mandingo Plateau 1: 67  
 Mandjia people 1: 214  
 Manfred, king of Naples and Sicily 4: 26  
 Manganelli, Giorgio 3: 309  
 Mangi 3: 351  
 Mangistau 4: 292  
 Mangla 3: 103  
 Manhattan 2: 33, 47  
 Mani 3: 36  
 Manica 1: 291  
 Manicland 1: 306  
 Manila 3: 20  
 Manifesto of the Thirteen 2: 150  
 Manikongo people 1: 276  
 Manila 3: 6, 295, 296, 297, 298, 313  
 Manipur 3: 109  
 Manitoba 2: 15, 17, 19, 23  
 Mankono 1: 152  
 Manley, Michael Norman 2: 159  
 Mann, Leonard 5: 16  
 Mann, Thomas 4: 186  
 Manu-Morro River 1: 177  
 Maou people 1: 166  
 Maou River 1: 165  
 Maou River Union 1: 167  
 Maono Island 5: 32  
 Mantos, Cueva de los 2: 310  
 Mansbo 4: 143  
 Mansfield, Katherine 5: 28  
 Mansôa 1: 164  
 Mansôa River 1: 163  
 Mansur, Abu Jafar al- 3: 38, 64  
 Mansur, Ahmed el- 1: 30  
 Mansura 1: 18  
 Mantalingajan, Mount 3: 296  
 Mantara Gyi Pagoda 3: 268  
 Mantegazza, Paolo 2: 291  
 Mantiqueira, Serra da 2: 188  
 Mantra people 3: 307  
 Manu National Park 2: 258  
 Mannel I, king of Portugal 2: 197  
 Manuel Antonio National Park 2: 88  
 Manimba people 1: 157  
 Manus 5: 29  
 Manzanillo Bay 2: 161  
 Manzanillo Island 2: 113  
 Manzikert, Battle of 4: 308  
 Manzini 1: 301  
 Manzoni, Alessandro 4: 10, 26  
 Mao Zedong 3: 181-182, 210  
 Maoko Mountains 5: 29  
 Maori people 5: 3, 5, 25, 27, 28, 40, 41, 44  
 Maputo 1: 5, 290, 291, 292  
 Ma'qil people 1: 71  
 Maqwa 3: 45  
 Mar, Serrô do 2: 188  
 Mar del Plata 2: 294  
 Mara 1: 235  
 Mara River 1: 224  
 Marabios Mountains 2: 108  
 Maracibo 2: 205, 207, 209, 212  
 Maracaiho, Lake 2: 205, 206, 208, 212  
 Maracay 2: 207  
 Maradnih 1: 35  
 Maradi 1: 73  
 Marahoué National Park 1: 151  
 Marajó Island 2: 197  
 Marakanda 3: 33, 345  
 Maramba 1: 303  
 Maramures 4: 250  
 Maran 3: 29  
 Maranhão 2: 191, 193, 196  
 Maravi people 1: 287  
 March River 4: 174, 177  
 Marche de Assis, Joaquim Maria 2: 198  
 Marche 4: 21  
 Marcomanni people 4: 179, 198  
 Marcos, Ferdinand 3: 297, 299  
 Marcus Antonius 4: 24  
 Marcus Aurelius 4: 8, 25  
 Marcus Island 5: 38  
 Marikh, Tell 3: 55  
 Maré Island 5: 39  
 Mare nostrum (see Mediterranean Sea)  
 Marchan people 1: 116  
 Maremma River 4: 19  
 Marfledonia, Gulf of 4: 19  
 Margaret, countess of Flanders 4: 191  
 Margarethe I, queen of Denmark 4: 125  
 Margarethe II, queen of Denmark 4: 125  
 Margarta Island 2: 205  
 Margherita Peak 1: 248  
 Margibi 1: 166  
 Mari (Russia) 4: 299  
 Mari (Syria) 3: 55  
 Maria Theresa, archduchess of Austria 4: 176, 243, 256  
 Maria Trinidad Sanchez 2: 154  
 Mariana Islands 3: 296, 5: 3, 5, 38, 40  
 Mariana Trench 5: 2  
 Marinas Ridge 5: 21-22  
 Marategui, Jose Carlos 2: 262  
 Marib 3: 61  
 Maribou 4: 200  
 Marie Byrd Land 5: 91  
 Marie Galante Island 2: 338  
 Mariehamn 4: 128  
 Mariental 1: 294  
 Marinello, Juan 2: 150  
 Maringa, Mount 2: 339  
 Maruno 4: 30  
 Marion Island (Antarctic) 5: 91  
 Marion Island (South Africa) 1: 296  
 Maritime Alps 4: 18  
 Maritsa River 4: 238  
 Maritsa Valley 4: 248, 249, 240  
 Marus 4: 24  
 Markazi 3: 33  
 Markham, Albert 5: 90  
 Marlborough (New Zealand) 5: 25  
 Marlow, Christopher 4: 77  
 Marmara, Sea of 3: 58  
 Marmara ve Ege kıyıları 3: 58  
 Marmarica region 1: 22  
 Marmolada, Mount 4: 18  
 Marne River 4: 64  
 Marx, Philip van 4: 62  
 Maroni River 2: 211  
 Maroni Valley 2: 202  
 Maronite Christians 3: 47, 48  
 Maroons 2: 157  
 Maroua 1: 212  
 Marowijne 2: 203  
 Marques, Lourenço 1: 292  
 Marquesas Islands 5: 5, 6, 38, 40  
 Murra, Jebel 1: 75  
 Murakch 1: 7, 26, 27, 28, 30  
 Marsa al Buraiqah 1: 24  
 Marsabit National Reserve 1: 224

- Marsala 4: 32  
 Marsden 5: 26  
 Marseilles 4: 64, 66–67, 68, 69  
 Marsh Arabs 3: 38  
 Marshall, John 5: 21  
 Marshall Islands 5: 4, 20, 21, 38  
 Martaban Gulf of 3: 248  
 Martel, Charles 4: 69  
 Martens, Wilfred 4: 63  
 Marti, Augustin F. 2: 92  
 Martí, José 2: 150, 210  
 Martial (Roman writer) 4: 93  
 Martínez de Irala, Domingo de 2: 303  
 Martinique 2: 141, 169, 170, 348, 5: 135  
 Marx, Karl 4: 10, 186  
 Marxism 2: 111, 4: 284, 301  
 Mary (Turkmenistan region) 4: 307  
 Mary Queen of Scots 4: 77  
 Mary of Burgundy 4: 62  
 Maryland (Iberia) 1: 166  
 Maryland (U.S.) 2: 31  
 Marzuq 1: 23  
 MAS (Movimiento al Socialismo) [Venezuela] 2: 210  
 Masai Amboseli Game Reserve 5: 173  
 Masai Mara game reserve 1: 224  
 Masai people 1: 224, 225, 226, 227, 234, 247, 248  
 Masai Plateau 1: 207  
 Masaka 1: 238  
 Masani 3: 188, 189  
 Masarik, Tomas 4: 179  
 Masaya 2: 109  
 Mascara 1: 13  
 Mascarene Basin 1: 231, 288  
 Mascarene Islands 1: 273, 288  
 Mascarenhas, Pedro 1: 335  
 Maseru 1: 5, 281, 282  
 Mashhad 3: 32, 33, 34, 35  
 Mashona people 1: 306  
 Mashonaland 1: 306  
 Masintoc 3: 298  
 Masirah Island 3: 49  
 Masjid-i Shahi 3: 34  
 Masnoules 1: 77  
 Maspat 3: 6, 49, 50  
 Massa people 1: 63, 211  
 Massachusetts 2: 31, 40  
 Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) 2: 38  
 Massamba Debat, Alphonse 1: 218  
 Massawa 1: 106, 107, 112  
 Massif Central 4: 2, 64, 68  
 Maurian Lakes Park 4: 193  
 Masvingo 1: 306  
 Mata Utu Island 5: 40  
 Mata Zoma 2: 189, 190, 191, 193  
 Matabele people 1: 306, 308  
 Matabeleland 1: 306  
 Matadi 1: 243, 244, 245  
 Matagalpa 2: 109  
 Matanzas 2: 148  
 Matana people 5: 27  
 Mather, Cotton 2: 7  
 Matip B. 1: 213  
 Matmata, Djebel 1: 31  
 Mato Grosso 2: 191, 192, 193, 195, 196  
 Mato Grosso Pantanal of 2: 188, 189  
 Mato Grosso do Sul 2: 191, 196  
 Matia Mountains 4: 255, 257  
 Matrah 3: 49, 50  
 Matruh 1: 18  
 Matsapa 1: 301  
 Matsui Island 3: 206  
 Matterhorn (Monte Cervino) 4: 18, 201, 205  
 Matthew Island 5: 39  
 Matthias, Holy Roman emperor 4: 176  
 Matto de Turner, Clorinda 2: 262  
 Matufin 2: 208  
 Mau Escarpment 1: 224  
 Mau Mau rebellion 1: 227  
 Maui 5: 26  
 Maule 2: 244  
 Maule River 2: 243  
 Mauna Kea 2: 26, 5: 2  
 Manna Loa 2: 26, 5: 2  
 Maupiti Island 5: 40  
 Mauri (see Moors)  
 Mauritania 1: 5, 10, 61, 69–71, 79, 80, 335  
 Mauritius 1: 5, 232, 273, 288, 290, 310  
 Maurya Empire 3: 16, 109, 115, 123, 127  
 Maurya people 3: 103  
 Mavrovo National Park 4: 248  
 Mavuradonha Range 1: 305  
 Mawenzi (volcano) 1: 247  
 Mawson, Douglas 5: 94  
 Maximilian, emperor of Mexico 2: 106  
 Maximilian I, Holy Roman emperor 4: 62, 175, 190, 204  
 May Pen 2: 157  
 Maya Maya 1: 218  
 Maya Mountains 2: 86, 87  
 Mayaguana Island 2: 143  
 Mayaguez 2: 340  
 Mayan civilization 2: 3, 82, 83, 85, 87, 92, 93, 95, 105, 115, 116  
 Mayan language 2: 94, 102  
 Mayan people 2: 87, 109, 112  
 Mayan religion 2: 102  
 Mayflower 2: 40  
 Mayr 1: 243, 244  
 Mayo Kebbi 1: 63, 64  
 Mayotte 1: 280, 281, 291, 335, 346  
 Maysan 3: 38  
 Mazandaran 3: 33  
 Mazari-i Sharif 3: 14  
 Mazatlan 2: 199  
 Mazdaism 3: 8, 36, 100  
 M Ba 1 com 1: 220  
 Mbahane 1: 5, 300, 391  
 Mbale 1: 238  
 M Bah 1: 276  
 M Bah River 1: 215  
 M Bao free industrial zone 1: 174  
 Mbarara 1: 238  
 Mbeki people 1: 219  
 Mbete people 1: 308  
 Mbewe people 1: 787  
 Mbeya 1: 235  
 Mbini 1: 221, 222  
 M Bonon 1: 215  
 Mhoshi people 1: 217  
 Mbom free trade zone 1: 175  
 Mbom Dukat 1: 175  
 Mbuti Masi 1: 243, 244  
 Mbumbu people 1: 275  
 MDRM (Democratic Movement for the Rebirth of Malagasy) 1: 286  
 Meath 4: 81  
 Mecca 3: 19, 21, 66  
 Mechi 3: 122  
 Mehtar, Vladimir 4: 179  
 Mecklenburg-Vorpommern 4: 182  
 Medan 3: 300, 302, 303  
 Me dan Arabs 3: 38  
 Medellín 2: 248, 251  
 Medellín cartel 2: 252  
 Medemne 1: 34  
 Medes 3: 32, 4: 286  
 Medes Empire 3: 8  
 Medes people 3: 36  
 Media 3: 345  
 Mediation Act of (England) 4: 204  
 Medici, Lorenzo de' 4: 26  
 Medina 3: 19, 20, 21  
 Medinat Yisrael (see Israel)  
 Mediterranean Africa 1: 9–40  
 Mediterranean Sea 3: 47, 63, 4: 2, 3, 8, 12, 24, 5: 145  
 Medjerda Mountains 1: 31  
 Medjerda River 1: 31, 33  
 Medvednica Mountains 4: 242  
 Megara Hyblaea 4: 24  
 Megarian people 4: 24  
 Meghalaya 3: 109  
 Meghna River 3: 101  
 Meguido 3: 43  
 Mehedihi 4: 250  
 Meheta Island 5: 40  
 Mehmet Ali (Egypt) 1: 20, 3: 44, 55  
 Mehmet Ali (Sudan) 1: 78  
 Mehmet II, sultan of Ottoman Empire 3: 59  
 Menji I ra 3: 200  
 Meillon St. Laurent 4: 68  
 Meknes 1: 28, 29  
 Mekong River 3: 3, 170, 251, 254, 255, 256, 257, 258, 262, 267, 268  
 Melaka (see Malacca)  
 Melanchthon, Philipp 4: 186  
 Melanesia 5: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 18, 31  
 Melanesian people 5: 3, 19, 22, 23, 29, 30, 31, 37, 39  
 Melbourne 5: 7, 11, 12, 14, 43  
 Melilla 1: 337  
 Mella A. 2: 150  
 Melihir, Chott 1: 11  
 Melville, Herman 2: 8, 12  
 Melville Island 5: 88, 89  
 Melville Peninsula 5: 88  
 Melzi Di til, Francesco 3: 1  
 Mendana de Neira, Alvaro de 5: 5, 32, 40  
 Mendel people 1: 177, 178  
 Mendez River 3: 57, 58  
 Mendez, Evar 2: 298  
 Mendoza 2: 291, 295, 296, 297  
 Mendoza, Pedro de 2: 289, 297  
 Menelik 1: 111, 112, 118  
 Menem, Carlos Saul 2: 296, 299  
 Mengistu Haile Mariam 1: 112  
 Mentawai Islands 3: 300  
 Mentawai 1: 18  
 Menzies, Robert Gordon 5: 17  
 Mco people 3: 255, 258  
 Merca 1: 115, 116  
 Mercado Modelo (Santo Domingo) 2: 170  
 Mercury 5: 125  
 Merib River 1: 106  
 Meremet 5: 26  
 Merendon, Sierra de 2: 96  
 Mergui 3: 249  
 Merida 2: 100, 207  
 Merida, Cordillera de 2: 187, 205, 206, 211  
 Merina people 1: 284, 285, 310  
 Merinids 1: 30  
 Merisi, Michelangelo (Caravaggio) 4: 9, 26  
 Merot (Merow) kingdom 1: 78, 80, 111  
 Merovingian dynasty 4: 69  
 Mersin 3: 59  
 Mersin 3: 308, 309  
 Meru Mount 1: 207, 233  
 Meru Betti National Reserve 3: 301  
 Meseta Central (Costa Rica) 2: 88  
 Meseta Central (Spain) 4: 2, 51, 58, 88, 89  
 Meseta de Aguila escondida 2: 100  
 Mesewa, salt pan 1: 118  
 Meskala 1: 29  
 Mesoamerica (see Central America)  
 Mesopotamia 3: 4, 8, 11, 37, 38, 40, 52, 59, 65, 66, 5: 148  
 Mesozoic Era 5: 137, 138  
 Messapian people 4: 24  
 Messata Plain 3: 25  
 Messina 4: 19, 21  
 Mesta Valley 4: 240  
 Mestizos 2: 88, 90, 91, 106, 115, 145, 148, 154, 160, 207, 239, 244, 249, 254, 258, 301  
 Mesurado, Cape 1: 165, 166  
 Mesurado Peninsula 1: 182  
 Mesurado River 1: 182  
 Meta 2: 250  
 Meta River 2: 205, 248  
 Metaponto 4: 24  
 Meteors (sandstone blocks, Italy) 4: 14, 32  
 Methodism 2: 17, 4: 126  
 Metropolitan Museum (New York City) 2: 33  
 Metropolitan Opera House 2: 33  
 Metropolitana de Santiago 2: 244, 245, 246  
 Mettermich, Klemens 4: 10, 176  
 Metz 4: 66, 67  
 Meung, leaf de 4: 69  
 Meuse River 4: 60  
 Mexican Desert 2: 115  
 Mexican Highlands 2: 2, 4  
 Mexican Revolution 2: 106, 107, 116  
 Mexico (country) 2: 4, 6, 9, 43, 81, 82, 84, 85, 98, 99, 107, 115, 116, 5: 38  
 Mexico (state) 2: 102  
 Mexico Gulf of 2: 36, 37, 38, 39, 85, 115  
 Mexico City 2: 5, 7, 83, 99, 100, 101, 104, 105, 107, 116  
 Mikoto la Malawi (see Malawi)  
 Miltune 1: 301  
 Miami 2: 27, 33  
 Miami Beach 2: 17  
 Maoli 3: 207  
 Miao Yao people 3: 263  
 Michael, prince of Transylvania 4: 252  
 Michelangelo 4: 9, 13, 26  
 Michigan 2: 31, 35, 37  
 Michoacan de Ocampo 2: 102  
 Mickiewicz, Adam 4: 196  
 Mico, Sierra del 2: 93  
 Micronesia 5: 1, 2, 3, 4, 21, 22, 35, 38  
 Micronesian people 5: 3, 5, 20, 21, 31  
 Mid Atlantic Ridge 5: 85  
 Middelort, Alexander von 5: 89  
 Middle Caicos Island 2: 337  
 Middle Congo 1: 218, 335  
 Middle East 2: 44, 3: 7, 9, 11, 66  
 Middle Horde 4: 293  
 Middle India 1: 11  
 Middle Shabelle 1: 115  
 Middleveld 1: 301  
 Midi Canal du 4: 65  
 Midi Pyrenees 4: 66  
 Midway Islands 5: 30  
 Midwest (U.S.) 2: 35  
 Midori (mountain) 4: 245  
 Mlc 3: 192  
 Mighoumi, Hio 4: 231  
 Mijntins region 1: 114  
 Mikhaylovgrad 4: 239  
 Mikheli 4: 129  
 Mila 1: 13  
 Milan 4: 8, 19, 20, 21, 23, 24, 25, 26, 69  
 Mileke people (see BaMileke people)  
 Military Committee for National Redressment (CMRN) [Guinea] 1: 162  
 Military Committee of National Liberation (Mali) 1: 68  
 Milky Way 5: 125  
 Mill Pond 2: 25  
 Milne, David 2: 146  
 Milne Bay 5: 29  
 Milton, John 4: 77  
 Milwane Reserve 1: 301  
 Milwaukee 2: 37  
 Mina el 3: 48  
 Mina Mount 1: 66  
 Mina al Ahmadi 3: 45  
 Mina al Lahil 3: 49  
 Mina people 1: 145  
 Mina, Salman 3: 23  
 Minamoto family 3: 198, 199  
 Minas, Sierra de las 2: 93  
 Minas Gerais 2: 191, 192, 193, 195, 196, 197, 198  
 Mindanao 3: 796, 297, 314  
 Mindanigas, king of Ithuania 4: 136  
 Mindelo 1: 149, 150  
 Mindoro Island 3: 296  
 Ming dynasty 3: 180, 208, 349  
 Mingaladon 3: 249  
 Mingin 3: 268  
 Minh Hai 3: 263  
 Minho 4: 85  
 Minnaka people 1: 66  
 Minneapolis 2: 33, 39  
 Minnesota 2: 31, 35, 37, 45, 120  
 Minnoan civilization 4: 7, 15, 31  
 Minnoans 4: 12  
 Minsk 4: 4, 288  
 Minya 1: 18  
 Miquelon 2: 337, 338, 339  
 Mir Taqi Mir 3: 116  
 MIR (Movimiento de la Izquierda Revolucionaria) [Bolivia] 2: 241  
 Miranda 2: 207  
 Miranda, Francisco de 2: 84, 210  
 Miranda, Roque Centurion 2: 303  
 Miran, Sassanid prince 4: 290  
 Mirza Iskander 3: 127  
 Misery, Mount 2: 164  
 Mishima Yukio 3: 201  
 Mistones 2: 295, 302  
 Misiones, Sierra de 2: 291  
 Miskito people 2: 97, 109  
 Miskolc 4: 254, 255  
 Misool Island 3: 300  
 Mlatah 1: 23, 24, 25  
 Mississippi 2: 31, 35  
 Mississippi River 2: 1, 2, 13, 25, 27, 37, 40, 41, 45  
 Mississippian culture 2: 6  
 Missouri 2: 31, 35  
 Missouri River 2: 1, 40, 45  
 Misti Volcano 2: 257  
 Mistral, Gabriel 2: 246  
 MIT (Massachusetts Institute of Technology) 2: 38  
 Mitchell, Mount 2: 25  
 Miteme River 1: 221  
 Mitrkon (mountain) 4: 14  
 Miu, (gebuige region) 4: 2, 180  
 Mittelland 4: 201, 202  
 Mitterand, François 4: 70  
 Mixteco people 2: 110  
 Miyagi 3: 192  
 Miyazaki 3: 192  
 Mizorani 3: 109  
 ML SLP (Movement for the Liberation of Sao Tome and Principe) 1: 231  
 MNR (Movimiento Nacionalista Revolucionario) [Bolivia] 2: 241  
 Moa River 1: 177  
 Moanda 1: 244  
 Moanda region 1: 220  
 Mobutu Joseph Desire 1: 246  
 Mobutu Sese Seko Lake 1: 105, 207, 237  
 Moçamedes 1: 310  
 Mochica 2: 260  
 Moco, Setra 1: 275  
 Modena 4: 21  
 Modjokerto bay 3: 4  
 Moengo 2: 703  
 Moesta 4: 241  
 Mogadishu 1: 5, 114, 115, 116, 118  
 Mogilev 4: 286  
 Mohaca 4: 198  
 Mohale's Hoek 1: 282  
 Mohamed, Ali Mahdi 1: 116  
 Mohammad Reza Shahi Pahlavi 3: 34, 36  
 Mohammed V, sultan of Morocco 1: 30  
 Mohammedia 1: 29  
 Mohammedia Znata 1: 28  
 Mohawk River 2: 17  
 Moheli 1: 280  
 Mohenjodaro 3: 114, 127  
 Mohorovičič discontinuity 5: 132  
 Moi, Daniel arap 1: 227  
 Mojave Desert 2: 25, 27  
 Moji 3: 197

- Mojmir 4: 179  
 Mokhotlong 1: 282  
 Mokp'o 3: 189  
 Mola Dagbani people 1: 157  
 Moldavia 4: 232 249 250 251 252 257  
 Moldavia People's Republic of 4: 232 296  
 Moldavian Soviet Socialist Republic 4: 296  
 Moldova 4: 4 295 296  
 Moldovita 4: 258  
 Mole National Park 1: 157  
 Molina, Juan Ramon 2: 98  
 Molina, Tirso de 2: 155  
 Molise 4: 21  
 Molopo River 1: 277 279, 296  
 Molotov 4: 299, 300  
 Molucca Sea 3: 300  
 Moluccas 3: 300 301 302  
 Mombasa 1: 224 225 226 227  
 Mon 3: 247  
 Mon Buddhists 3: 247  
 Mon Island 4: 145  
 Mon Khmer people 3: 258 263  
 Mon people 3: 249 256 260  
 Monaco 4: 4 29 31  
 Monagas 2: 207  
 Monastir 1: 33 34  
 Moncayo Sierra del 4: 89  
 Monchique Mountain 4: 84  
 Monclova 2: 104, 116  
 Mondego River 4: 85  
 Mondolkiri 3: 251  
 Moneda, Palacio de la 2: 164  
 Mongke Khan 3: 205  
 Mongol Beti 1: 213  
 Mongol Empire 3: 204 205  
 Mongolia (Mongol Uls) 3: 2 6 167 168 201 205 211 (*see also* Inner Mongolia)  
 Mongolia, Inner 3: 169 171 172 175 205 209  
 Mongolia, Outer 3: 205 (*see also* Mongolia)  
 Mongolian People's Revolutionary Party (MPRP) 3: 205  
 Mongoloid peoples 2: 3 6 3: 4 5 13 192 245 5: 151  
 Mongols 3: 8 9 14 16 32 36 39 40 55 59 109 116 122 168 172 180 186 199 202 249 304 309 4: 241, 286 292, 294 297 303 306 311 312 313 314  
 Mono 1: 145  
 Mono River 1: 145 179  
 Monomotapa Empire 1: 292 308, 310  
 Monophysism 1: 20 78 111 4: 286 (*see also* Coptic Church)  
 Monroe, James 2: 41  
 Monroe Doctrine 2: 8 14  
 Monrovia 1: 5 165 166 167 182  
 Monriv Antonio 3: 111  
 Mons people 3: 245  
 Monsenor Nouel 2: 154  
 Mont Saint Michel 4: 95  
 Montaña (region, Peru) 2: 257  
 Montana (state, U.S.) 2: 29 31 35 37  
 Monte Carlo 4: 29, 31  
 Monte Cristi 2: 154  
 Monte Cristi Sierra de 2: 153  
 Monte Plata 2: 154  
 Montego Bay 2: 157, 158  
 Montejunto Sierra 4: 84  
 Montecristin people 4: 245  
 Montenegro 4: 232 236 245 246 247  
 Monterrey 2: 100, 101 104 116  
 Montesquieu 4: 304  
 Montevideo (city) 2: 304 305 306 307, 310  
 Montevideo (department) 2: 306  
 Montezuma II, emperor of Mexico 2: 6, 116  
 Montgomery, Richard 2: 22  
 Montreal 2: 13, 15, 16, 17 18 19 22, 120  
 Montsech Sierra del 4: 92  
 Montserrat 1: 166  
 Montserrat 2: 141, 336-337  
 Monument Valley 2: 45  
 Monumento Natural Bosques Petrificados 2: 293  
 Monzino, Guido 5: 90  
 Mook, Armando 1 2: 246  
 Moon 5: 125, 126, 130 145 171  
 Moonie 5: 14  
 Moore, Henry 4: 75  
 Moorea Island 5: 39 40  
 Moors 1: 66, 71 176 3: 128 129 4: 8 85  
 Mopti 1: 66 67 79  
 Moquegua 2: 258  
 Moratúa 3: 129  
 Morava River 4: 174 177  
 Moravia 4: 177, 178 179 197 198  
 Moravian Gate 4: 177 193  
 Moray Earth 4: 72  
 Morazan 2: 91  
 Morazan, Francisco 2: 98  
 Mordvina 4: 799  
 More og Romsdal 4: 138  
 Morelos 2: 102  
 Morelos, Jose Maria 2: 106  
 Morem Wildlife Reserve 1: 278  
 Morena Sierra 4: 88 89 92  
 Moreno, Mariano 2: 297  
 Moreno Glacier 2: 309  
 Morgan, Henry 2: 159  
 Morne, Mount 1: 248  
 Morne des Sauteurs 2: 160  
 Morne Diablotin 2: 151  
 Moro National Liberation Front 3: 299  
 Moro people 3: 297  
 Morrobo 5: 29  
 Moroccan territories (Spanish) 1: 337 338  
 Morocco 1: 5 10 26 30 35 36 71 5: 175  
 Morogoro 1: 235  
 Morona Santiago 2: 254  
 Morong 3: 298  
 Moroni 1: 5 280 281  
 Morphon Bay 3: 25  
 Morro River 1: 165  
 Morupuk 1: 279  
 Moscow 4: 4 296 299 300 302 303 304 313 311 5: 175  
 Mosel Canal 4: 184  
 Moshweshwe, Chief 1: 282  
 Mosquitia, Independent Kingdom of 2: 109  
 Mosquitia Plain 2: 96  
 Mosquito Coast 2: 108  
 Moss 4: 139  
 Mossel Bay 1: 299  
 Mossi Empire 1: 147  
 Mossi people 1: 68 147 148 180, 181  
 Mostagenem 1: 13  
 Mostar 4: 236  
 Mosul 3: 37, 38 39  
 Motagua River 2: 93  
 Motagua Valley 2: 94  
 Mother Theresa 3: 132  
 Motorua 5: 26  
 Motu people 5: 29  
 Moutoun 1: 147  
 Moulmein 3: 247 248 249  
 Moulouva River 1: 26  
 Mounana 1: 248  
 Moundou 1: 62, 63 64  
 Mount Conda National Park 1: 113  
 Mount Cavima 3: 129  
 Mousgouni people 1: 211  
 Moutela 1: 218  
 Movement for a Democratic Slovakia 4: 179  
 Movement for the Liberation of São Tomé and Príncipe (MLSTP) 1: 231  
 Movimiento al Socialismo (MAS) [Venezuela] 2: 210  
 Movimiento de la Izquierda Revolucionaria (MIR) [Bolivia] 2: 241  
 Movimiento Nacionalista Revolucionario (MNR) [Bolivia] 2: 241  
 Mexico 1: 276  
 Muyen Chari 1: 63  
 Moyenne Guinée region 1: 161  
 Moyen Ogooue 1: 220  
 Moyowosi Game Reserve 1: 234  
 Mozabites 1: 12  
 Mozambique (city) 1: 292  
 Mozambique (country) 1: 5 274 290-293  
 Mozambique Channel 1: 283 291, 336  
 Mozambique Current 1: 273 291, 296  
 Mozambique kingdom 1: 292  
 Mozambique National Resistance (RI NAMO) 1: 293  
 Mozambique plains 1: 305  
 Mozambique River 1: 233  
 Mozart, Wolfgang Amadeus 4: 9  
 MPLA (Popular Movement for the Liberation of Angola) 1: 277  
 M'poko 1: 215 248  
 MPRP (Mongolian People's Revolutionary Party) 3: 205  
 M Sela 1: 13  
 Mswati I, king of Swaziland 1: 301  
 Mswati III, king of Swaziland 1: 301  
 Mtscheta 4: 290  
 Mtsihali, Oswald Mbuyiseni 1: 300  
 Mtwaru 1: 735  
 Muang Thai (*see* Thailand)  
 Muara 3: 294 295  
 Muharak, Hosni 1: 21  
 Muchinga Mountains 1: 302  
 Mudanya 3: 55  
 Mudug 1: 114 115  
 Mutulua 1: 303  
 Mugabe, Robert 1: 308  
 Mughal Empire 3: 8 103 104 116-117 127 134  
 Mughal people 3: 15 16  
 Mugdzhiy Hills 4: 291  
 Muhammad, Ali Nasir 3: 62  
 Muhammad, founder of Islam 3: 19 21 66  
 Muhammad Ahmad 1: 78  
 Muharraq al 3: 23  
 Muhavura (volcano) 1: 228  
 Musca people 2: 82  
 Mukalla 1: 3: 61  
 Mukha 1: 3: 61 62  
 Mukran, Hadgi al 1: 2 3  
 Mulanj, Peak 1: 287  
 Mulattoes 2: 88 93 97 148 154, 162 249 254  
 Muldrow Glacier 5: 174  
 Mullhacen Peak 4: 89  
 Mulroney, Brian 2: 23  
 Multan 3: 125  
 Mum people (*see* BaMum people)  
 Mun River 3: 257  
 Munda languages 3: 100  
 Mundang people 1: 63  
 Munich 4: 181, 182 184 206  
 Munku Sadyk, Mount 3: 202  
 Munger 4: 81  
 Mui River 4: 174  
 Mur Valley 4: 175  
 Muramya 1: 209  
 Murasaki Shikibu 3: 198  
 Murcia 4: 90  
 Mureş 4: 250  
 Mureş River 4: 249  
 Murge 4: 19  
 Murillo, Bartolomé Esteban 4: 94  
 Murlitiff (mountain range) 4: 173  
 Murrumbidgee 4: 299, 300  
 Muroan 3: 197  
 Murray, Les 5: 17  
 Murray River 5: 8, 13  
 Murtala, Muhammad 1: 172  
 Mururoa Atoll 5: 40  
 Musala Peak 4: 238  
 Musandam 3: 50  
 Muscat 3: 6 49 50  
 Museveni, Yusef 1: 239  
 Musi River 3: 301  
 Musil, Robert 4: 176  
 Muslim religion (*see* Islam)  
 Muslims 1: 161 169, 172 234, 2: 167 3: 41, 42, 43 44 66 116 118 127 134, 314 4: 8 93 200, 233 236 238, 245, 250 290 306 307 (*see also* Islami, Shiite Muslims, Sunni Muslims)  
 Muso oa Lesotho 1: 5, 281-282  
 Musya, Kankan 1: 68  
 Musvolim, Benito 4: 27  
 Mustafa Mosque 4: 258  
 Mutare 1: 306 307  
 Mutesa 1: 238  
 Muthanna al 3: 38  
 Mutsamudu 1: 280  
 Mutsuhito 3: 200  
 Muvinga 1: 209  
 Muyunkum Desert 4: 291  
 Mwali 1: 280  
 Mwanza 1: 234 235  
 Mweelhe 4: 79  
 Mweru Lake 1: 241 302  
 Myanmar 3: 6 10 246 250 267 268  
 Mycenacan civilization 4: 7 31  
 Myingyan 3: 247  
 Myitkyna 3: 249  
 Mylius, Erichsen, Ludvig 5: 90  
 Myohyang Mountains 3: 183  
 Mysore Plateau 3: 107 108  
 Mzuzu 1: 287  
 N  
 Naama 1: 13  
 Nabataea kingdom 3: 18 30 66  
 Nabeul 1: 33  
 Nablus 3: 29  
 NAC (Nyasaland African Congress) [Malawi] 1: 288  
 Nachda movement an 1: 25  
 Nachtigal, Gustav 1: 180 213 295  
 Nadim, Abdallah 1: 21  
 Nadi 3: 15  
 Nador 1: 78  
 Nadroga 5: 18  
 NAFTA (North American Free Trade Agreement) 2: 104  
 Nafud Desert an 3: 17 18 63  
 Naga people 3: 245  
 Nagai 1: 115  
 Nagaland 3: 109  
 Nagat, Haveli 3: 109  
 Nagasaki 3: 192 200  
 Nagorno Karabakh 4: 285 286 287  
 Nagova 3: 192 196 197  
 Nagpur 3: 113  
 Naha 3: 191  
 Nahorkatva 3: 113  
 Nahouri 1: 147  
 Nahua language 2: 102  
 Nahua people 2: 105  
 Nahmatlato people 2: 109  
 Nahuel Haupi National Park 2: 293  
 Nanguata, Pico 2: 205  
 Nain 2: 158 3: 35  
 Nairobi 1: 5 223, 224 225, 226 248  
 Naitasiri 5: 18  
 Navaslu, Luke 1: 224  
 Najat an 3: 38  
 Najasa River 2: 147  
 Najd, The 3: 18, 21 22  
 Najd kingdom 3: 19  
 Najibullah, Muhammad 3: 16  
 Najran 3: 19  
 Nakhichevan enclave 4: 287  
 Nakhon Pathom 3: 259  
 Nakhon Ratchasima 3: 258, 259, 260  
 Naktong River 3: 187, 188  
 Nakuru 1: 224  
 Nakuru, Luke 1: 224, 248  
 Nakuru National Park 1: 224  
 Nalanda 3: 103  
 Nalayih 3: 204  
 Nalbandyan, Mikhail 4: 286  
 Nam Seng River 3: 255  
 Nam Viet kingdom 3: 265  
 Namaland 1: 294 (*see also* Namaqualand)  
 Namangan 4: 312  
 Namaqua people 1: 309  
 Namaqualand (NamaKwaland) 1: 296, 309  
 Namentenga 1: 147  
 Namib Desert 1: 273 294, 295 297, 309  
 Namibe 1: 276  
 Namibia 1: 5 293-295, 309 310  
 Namosi 5: 18  
 Namp'o 3: 184 185  
 Nampula 1: 291 292  
 Nambu 3: 249  
 Namuli, Sena 1: 291  
 Namui 4: 61  
 Namui, House of 4: 83  
 Nana Mambere 1: 215  
 Nanak, Gurm 3: 127  
 Nancy (France) 4: 66 67  
 Nandin Devi Peak 3: 106  
 Nanganhar 3: 14  
 Nangim Mountains 3: 183  
 Nanjing (Nanking) 3: 172 180  
 Nanking Treaty of 3: 181 340  
 Nanshan, Taidiof 5: 89 90  
 Nansha Islands 3: 169  
 Nantes 4: 66 67  
 Nantes, Taidiof 4: 70  
 Nantou 3: 207  
 NAP (New People's Army) [Philippines] 3: 299  
 Napata, kingdom of 1: 78  
 Napier 5: 25  
 Naples 4: 19 20 21 23 24  
 Naples, kingdom of 4: 26 93  
 Napo 2: 254  
 Napo River 2: 253  
 Napoleon 1: 18 20 336 2: 48 198 4: 10 28 30 39 70 94 191 304  
 Napoleon III 4: 67 191 252  
 Nara 3: 192 198  
 Narayangang 3: 103  
 Narayani 3: 127  
 Nares, George 5: 90  
 Naresuan, king of Siam 3: 260  
 Narical 2: 208  
 Narino 2: 250  
 Narito, Antonio 2: 251  
 Nariva, Mayaro 2: 167  
 Narmada River 3: 107  
 Narva 4: 126  
 Narvin River 4: 293  
 NASA (National Aeronautics and Space Agency) 2: 47  
 Nasia River 1: 156  
 Nasir, Amn Ibrahim 3: 170  
 Nassau 2: 143 144  
 Nasser, Gamal Abdel 1: 21 78  
 Nasser Lake 1: 17 75  
 Nat Monzammama River 1: 305  
 Natal 1: 297 299  
 Nathamuni, Sri 3: 116  
 Nath 3: 49  
 National Capital District (Papua New Guinea) 5: 29  
 National Economic Development Council (Great Britain) 4: 75  
 National Front for the Liberation of Angola (FNLA) 1: 277  
 National Front for the Liberation of Uganda (NFLU) 1: 239  
 National Front for the Liberation of Vietnam 3: 266  
 National Iranian Oil Company (NIOC) 1: 35  
 National League for Democracy (Myanmar) 3: 250  
 National Liberation Army (FLA) [Greece] 4: 17  
 National Liberation Front (FLN) [Algeria] 1: 14, 15, 16

- National Organization for the Cypriot Struggle (EOKA) 3: 26
- National Party (Vanuatu) 5: 37
- National Patriotic Front (Iberia) 1: 167
- National Petrochemical Company 1: 35
- National Socialist (Nazi) Party 4: 10 27 179, 186 187 191 196 198 206 247
- National Union for the Total Independence of Angola (UNITA) 1: 277
- Nationalist Party (Kuomintang) [China] 3: 181 208
- Nationalist Party (Korea) 3: 190
- Nationalist Party (Malta) 4: 28
- Nationalist Party (Spain) 4: 94
- Nationalist Party (NP) [South Africa] 1: 300
- Natitingou 1: 145
- Native Americans (see Amerind people, *Indios*, Inuit people)
- NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization) 4: 12 5: 159
- Natuna Islands 3: 300
- Natural Botanical Garden (Santo Domingo) 2: 153
- Natural History Museum (Santo Domingo) 2: 153
- Nauru 5: 3 4 22 23 38
- Nauruan language 5: 23
- Navajo people 2: 29
- Navarro Island 2: 309
- Navarra (Navarre) 4: 90
- Naxos 5: 18
- Naxos 4: 24
- Nayarit 2: 102
- Nazibayev Nursultan 4: 293
- Nazareth 3: 42
- Nazaryan Stephanos 4: 286
- Nazca 2: 260 264
- Nazca civilization 2: 264
- Nazca people 2: 237
- Nazca Plate 2: 237
- Nazi Party (see National Socialist (Nazi) Party)
- Nazir Wali Muhammad 3: 117
- Nazret 1: 110
- Nazwa 3: 50
- Nadagamchia salt marsh 1: 71
- Ndebele language 1: 306
- Ndebele people 1: 310
- Ndele 1: 214
- Ndjamena 1: 5 62 63 64
- Ndola 1: 303
- N Dougo kingdom 1: 276
- Ne Win 3: 250
- Negh Fough 4: 72
- Neanth 4: 250
- Neat and Middle East 2: 44 3: 7 9 11 66
- Near Bilma 1: 73
- Nearchus 3: 344 345
- Nearctic region 5: 147
- Nebfina Pico da (Brazil) 2: 188
- Nebfina Pico de (Venezuela) 2: 205
- Nebraska 2: 31 35
- Nebrodi Mountains 4: 19
- Necho II 1: 162
- Neembucu 2: 302
- Nefusah Djebel 1: 22
- Negata Brunei Darussalam 3: 6 294 295
- Negani National Park 3: 307
- Negeri Sembilan 3: 308
- Negev Desert 3: 41 65
- Negra, Cuchilla 2: 305
- Negrito people 3: 296, 307
- Negritude 1: 5 153 176, 286
- Negro Sudanese people 1: 22
- Negroid peoples 1: 4, 12, 27 64, 78, 105, 109 144 214, 3: 114, 5: 151 (see also African American people, Black people)
- Negros Island 3: 296
- Negus 1: 111, 118
- Nehun Jawaharlal 3: 112, 119
- Ner Monggol (see Inner Mongolia)
- Neiba 2: 155
- Neiba, Sierra de 2: 153
- Neiba Bay 2: 153
- Neiges Piton des 1: 335
- Neihardt John 2: 42
- Nejd, The (see Najd, The)
- Nelson (New Zealand) 5: 25
- Néma 1: 71
- Nemaia dynasty 4: 246
- Nemunas River 4: 2 136
- Nes Destour Party 1: 32 34
- Neotropical region 5: 147
- Nepal (Nepal Adhiraja) 3: 6 99, 100 121–123 131 5: 175
- Nepalese people 3: 105
- Nepali Congress Party 3: 123
- Neretva River 4: 236 242
- Nero 4: 25
- Neruda Pablo 2: 247
- Ness Loch 4: 72
- Nestorian Christianity 3: 9
- Nestos River 4: 15
- Netherlands 2: 339 4: 4 5 6 9 10 62 171 188 192 205 206 5: 38 97
- Netherlands possessions in the Americas 2: 4 339
- Netherlands Kingdom of The 4: 63 190
- Netherlands Republic of the United 4: 191
- Netherlands United Provinces of The 4: 191
- Netherlands Antilles 2: 339
- Neto Agostinho 1: 277
- Neuchatel 4: 207
- Neuquen 2: 295 296
- Neuschwanstein Castle 4: 205
- Neustädtersee (Neusiedler Lake) 4: 174
- Neva 4: 314
- Nevada (U.S.) 2: 31 37 41
- Nevada Sierra (Spain) 4: 89
- Nevada Sierra (U.S.) 2: 25 28 48
- Nevada Sierra (Venezuela) 2: 205
- Nevado de Cocuy Sierra 2: 248
- Nevada de Santa Maria Sierra 2: 249
- Nevado Cerro 2: 248
- Nevado Chlam (mountain) 2: 291
- Nevado de Colima National Park 2: 101
- Nevado de Tolima Sierra 2: 248 249
- Nevado de Tolima (mountain) 2: 99
- Nevado del Huila Sierra 2: 248
- Nevado del Ruiz Sierra 2: 248 249
- Nevis (see St. Kitts and Nevis)
- Nevis Ben 4: 71
- Nevski Prospekt 4: 313
- Nevsky Alexander 4: 258
- New Amsterdam 2: 33 200 201
- New Britain 5: 28 29
- New Brunswick 2: 13 15, 23 46
- New Caledonia 5: 1 3 4, 6 38 39
- New Corn Law (England) 4: 78
- New Deal 2: 43
- New Delhi 3: 6 106 109 111
- New Democracy Party (Greece) 4: 17
- New England 2: 7 9 31 32 35, 36, 38 40, 42
- New England Renaissance 2: 42, 43
- New France 2: 16 72
- New Frontier 2: 44
- New Georgia Island 5: 31
- New Guinea 3: 293, 5: 1 2 3 6, 28, 38 42, 44 (see also Indonesian Papua New Guinea)
- New Guinea, German 5: 3
- New Hampshire 2: 31, 40
- New Hebrides 5: 5, 6, 36, 37
- New Ireland 5: 28 29
- New Jersey 2: 31 33, 35
- New Jewel Movement 2: 160
- New Kingston 2: 157
- New Mexico 2: 28 29 31, 37 106
- New Objectivism 4: 186
- New Orleans 2: 27 31 33 40 41 48
- New People's Army (NAP) [Philippines] 3: 299
- New Plymouth (New Zealand) 5: 26
- New Providence Island 2: 143 144
- New River 2: 86
- New Siberian Islands 5: 85 86 87 88
- New South Wales 5: 11 13 14 14 16 43
- New Spain 2: 82
- Ness Valley 1: 18
- New World 2: 1 341
- New York (city) 2: 4 27 29 33 38 39, 40 46 47 48
- New York (state) 2: 17 31 33 35 37
- New York Stock Exchange 2: 48
- New Zealand 5: 1 2 3 4 5 6 23 28 33 38 41 96 97
- New Zealand possessions in Oceania 5: 4 38 40
- New Zealand Alps 5: 2
- New Zealand Land Company 5: 27
- New Zealanders 5: 3
- Newari people 3: 122 123
- Newcastle (St. Kitts and Nevis) 2: 164
- Newcastle (Australia) 5: 14 13
- Newcastle (England) 4: 76
- Newfoundland 2: 11 13 15 19 5: 89
- Newlove John 2: 23
- Newton Isaac 4: 9 77 5: 126 129
- NI LU (National Front for the Liberation of Uganda) 1: 239
- Niramlind 1: 278
- Niger people 1: 167
- Nglic Tinh 3: 263
- Nghia Binh 3: 263
- Ngo Dinh Diem 3: 266
- Ngo dynasty 3: 265
- Ni Gola 1: 276
- Nguni people 1: 287
- Ngooluh mountain 3: 262
- Ngonah Marien 1: 218
- Ngounne 1: 220
- Ngounne River 1: 219
- Nigazi 1: 209
- Ngigi James 1: 227
- Ngini people 1: 288 293 301 304 308
- Nguyen Du 3: 265
- Nguyen dynasty 3: 253
- Nguyen Khai Viet 3: 266
- Nha Trang 3: 263 264
- Niab 3: 293
- Niagani 3: 192
- Niagara Falls 2: 45
- Niagara River 2: 45
- Niail 4: 81
- Nomev 1 5 72 73 74
- Niane Djibril msir 1: 162
- Niani 1: 217
- Niari Kouilou River 1: 217
- Niassa 1: 291
- Niazov Saparmurat 4: 308
- Nicaea 3: 59
- Nicaea, Council of 3: 59
- Nicaragua 2: 4, 8 43 85 92 108 111 115 340
- Nicaragua Lake 2: 108 110 115
- Nicarao 2: 110
- Nicarao Moa combinat 2: 149 170
- Nice 4: 64 66, 69
- Nicholas II czar of Russia 4: 130, 304
- Nickerie 2: 203
- Nicobar Islands 3: 106 109
- Nicol, Abrosch 1: 178
- Nicosia 3: 6 24 25 26
- Nicoya Peninsula 2: 87 88 89
- Nidaros 4: 138 139 140
- Nidwalden 4: 202
- Niederlausitz 4: 184
- Niederer Tauern (mountain range) 4: 173
- Niederösterreich 4: 173 175
- Niedersachsen 4: 182
- Niefang 1: 221
- Niemeve Oscar 2: 199 212
- Nietzsche Friedrich 4: 10
- Nieuwe Waterweg 4: 190
- Nieuwpoort 4: 62
- Nieuw Nickette 2: 204
- Niger III 5: 61 62 65 67 72 74 79 80 144 146 168, 181 335
- Niger Paul 1: 8
- Niger Authority 1: 66 67
- Niger Congo languages 5: 151
- Niger River 1: 2 3 6 61 65 66 67 68 72 73 74 79 80 143 145 146 151 160 161 165 168 169 170 171 172 181 211
- Nigeria 1: 5 62 64 68 72 74 134 145 168 172 181 182 210 213 336 5: 164 174
- Niguanos people 2: 110
- Nihon (see Japan)
- Ningata 3: 192
- Nikolayev 4: 309
- Nikolayev River 4: 310
- Nikopi 4: 310
- Nile (province, Uganda) 1: 238
- Nile River 1: 3 10 17 18 19 20 35 74 75 76 77 78 80 105 106 108 111 208 211 228 233 234 237 238 3: 347
- Nilgiris (Blue Hills) 3: 107
- Nilo Hamitic people 1: 228 234 235
- Nilo Saharan languages 5: 151
- Nilotic people 1: 76 105 106 109 118 207 224 226 238 242
- Nimba 1: 166
- Nimba Range 1: 151 160 162 165 166
- Nimroy Colonel 1: 78
- Nimroze 3: 14
- Ninawa 3: 38
- Ninewa 3: 168 172
- NIOC (National Iranian Oil Company) 1: 35
- Niokolo National Park 1: 174
- Niqat al Khums 1: 23
- Nis 4: 245
- Nissaboury Mustafa 1: 30
- Niti 4: 198
- Nitra River 4: 197
- Niuas 5: 34
- Niue Atoll 5: 38 40
- Nixon Richard 2: 44
- Nizhny Novgorod 4: 299 300
- Njoya 1: 213
- Nkongsamba 1: 212
- Nkosa Dlamini people 1: 301
- Nkrumah Kwame 1: 158 159
- Nob Hill 2: 47
- Noblit Umberto 5: 90
- Nograd 4: 254
- Noh theater 3: 212
- Nontgedacht 1: 310
- Nokilaki (mountain) 3: 300
- Noli Antonio da 1: 150
- Noni Aligned Movement 2: 210
- Nord (department, Haiti) 2: 162
- Nord 1st (department, Haiti) 2: 162
- Nord Ouest (department, Haiti) 2: 162
- Nord Pas de Calais 4: 66 68
- Nord Trøndelag 4: 138
- Nordland 1st Island 5: 87
- Nordenskjold Adolf 5: 89
- Nordenskjold, Nils Otto 5: 94
- Nordenskjold Archipelago 5: 87
- Nordhurland Fystra 4: 132
- Nordhurland Vestra 4: 132
- Nordic Council 4: 121–122
- Nordland 4: 138
- Nordrhein Westfalen 4: 182
- Noreiga, Manuel Antonio 2: 114 340
- Norfolk 2: 40
- Norfolk Island 5: 38
- Norm Alps 4: 172
- Nordisk 4: 300
- Norman Church 4: 140
- Normandy 4: 66 69 95
- Normandy Lower 4: 66
- Normandy Upper 4: 66
- Normans (see Vikings)
- Norodom 1: 253
- Norodom Sihanouk 3: 253
- Norodom Sitamart 3: 253
- Norrbotten 4: 143
- Norrköping 4: 141
- Nordland 4: 141 143
- Norsemen (see Vikings)
- Norte de Santander 2: 250
- North America 2: 2 3 8 85, 3: 2 4: 1 5: 85 89 131
- North American Arctic 5: 88 90
- North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) 2: 104
- North American Plate 2: 26
- North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) 4: 12 5: 159
- North Bank (comet) The (Gambia) 1: 155
- North Borneo Company 3: 295
- North Brabant 4: 190
- North Cocos Island 2: 337
- North Carolina 2: 31 36
- North Dakota 2: 31 35
- North Holland 4: 190
- North Island (New Zealand) 5: 2 23 24 25 26 41
- North Korea 3: 6 182 186 210 (see also Korea)
- North Madlosmadulu 3: 120
- North Pole 5: 86, 89 90
- North Sea 4: 3 6 76 124 137
- North Solomons 5: 29
- North Victoria 1: 5: 94
- North Vietnam 3: 266 (see also Vietnam)
- Northeast Passage 5: 89 90
- Northern Cook Islands 5: 90
- Northern Ireland 4: 73 78 81 95 (see also United Kingdom)
- Northern Mariana Islands 5: 40
- Northern Range (Trinidad and Tobago) 2: 167
- Northern Sinai 1: 18
- Northern Sudan region 1: 76
- Northern Territory (Australia) 5: 10 11 13 14 16 43 44
- Northland (New Zealand) 5: 25
- Northwest (Somalia) 1: 115
- Northwest Highlands (Scotland) 4: 71
- Northwest Passage 5: 89 90 99
- Northwest Territories 2: 15 5: 88
- Norway 4: 2 4 57, 121, 122, 137 140, 145 146, 5: 87 96 97
- Norwegian people 4: 121 138 5: 87
- Norwegian Polar Institute 5: 87
- Norwegian Sea 4: 3 137
- Nosy Be Island 1: 283
- Notre Dame Cathedral of (Paris) 4: 67 96
- Notre Dame Cathedral of (Montreal) 2: 18
- Notre Dame Cathedral of (Montreal) 2: 18
- Notwan River 1: 278
- Nouadibou 1: 69 70 71
- Nouakchott 1: 5 69 70, 71 80
- Noukoue (lagoon) 1: 145
- Noumea 5: 39
- Nourlangie Rock 5: 44
- Nouvelle France 1a 2: 16 22
- Nova Castella, João de 1: 336
- Nova Scotia 2: 13 15 17 22 23
- Novaya Zemlya Archipelago 5: 85 87 88, 89
- Novgorod 4: 130, 144, 299, 303



- Novi Beograd 4: 245  
 Novi Sad 4: 245, 246  
 Novosibirsk 4: 299, 300  
 Nowy Sacz 4: 194  
 NP (Nationalist Party) [South Africa] 1: 300  
 Nsuta 1: 158  
 Ntamo (*see* Brazzaville)  
 Ntem 1: 221  
 N. Tingu (mountain) 1: 280  
 Nuni ruins 1: 238  
 Nuri 3: 250  
 Nubia 1: 78, 80  
 Nubian Desert 1: 75  
 Nubian people 1: 76, 239  
 Nubra River 3: 124  
 Nueva Ascension 2: 302  
 Nueva Esparta 2: 207  
 Nueva Granada Viceroyalty of 2: 114, 209, 251, 255  
 Nueva Segovia 2: 109, 110  
 Nuevo Leon 2: 102  
 Nuku Hiva Island 5: 40  
 Nukulafoa 5: 4, 34, 35  
 Nukus 4: 312  
 Numidia kingdom 1: 15  
 Nunkun Mountain 3: 106  
 Nupe kingdom 1: 172  
 Nuremberg 4: 181  
 Nuristan 3: 14  
 Nuristan people 3: 14  
 Nusa Tenggara Lesser Sunda Islands 3: 300, 302  
 Nuuk 5: 86, 89  
 Nuwara Elya 3: 128  
 Nyika National Park 1: 287  
 Ny Alcsund 5: 87  
 Nyanga 1: 220  
 Nyanga River 1: 219  
 Nyanja people 1: 287  
 Nyanza 1: 224, 229  
 Nyasa Lake (*see* Malawi Lake)  
 Nyasaland 1: 304, 308, 336  
 Nyasaland African Congress (NAC) [Malawi] 1: 288  
 Nyerere, Julius 1: 235, 236  
 Nyika Plateau 1: 286, 287  
 Nyiragihara 4: 254  
 Nyobe Um 1: 213  
 Nystad Treaty of 4: 127  
 Nzais 1: 221  
 Nzerekote 1: 161
- O**
- Oakland 2: 47  
 Oakley, Barry 5: 17  
 OAU (Organization of African Unity) 1: 177, 297, 5: 159  
 Ob Basin 4: 291  
 Ob River 4: 297, 5: 85, 87, 89  
 Obasanjo Olusegun 1: 172  
 Obaid el 1: 75, 76, 77  
 Obelid people 3: 39  
 Oberosteneich 4: 173, 175  
 Ob Irtysh Basin 4: 302  
 Ob Irtysh River 3: 3  
 Obok 1: 113, 118  
 Obote, Milton 1: 239  
 Obregon, Alvaro 2: 107  
 Obuasi 1: 158  
 Obwalden 4: 202  
 OCAM (Common African and Malagasy Organization) 1: 70  
 Ocampo, Sebastiano de 2: 150  
 Ocean Island 5: 19, 20  
 Oceania 3: 197, 5: 1-44  
 Oceania Australian possessions in 5: 4, 38, 39  
 Oceania British possessions in 5: 4, 38, 39  
 Oceania Chilean possessions in 5: 4, 38, 39  
 Oceania French possessions in 5: 4, 38, 39-40  
 Oceania New Zealand possessions in 5: 4, 38, 40  
 Oceania, U.S. possessions in 5: 4, 38, 40  
 Oceanography Museum (Monaco) 4: 79  
 Ocho Rios 2: 158  
 Ochoa Sanchez, Arnaldo 2: 151  
 Ochs, Peter 4: 204  
 Ocoa Bay 2: 153  
 Ocotepeque 2: 97  
 Oda Nobunaga 3: 199  
 Odense 4: 123, 124  
 Oder Basin 4: 177  
 Oder-Neisse line 4: 196  
 Oder River 4: 2, 193  
 Odessa 4: 309, 310, 314  
 Odienné 1: 152  
 Odoacer 4: 25  
 Odra, M. Muel 2: 262  
 Odzala National Park 1: 217  
 Oedcl 4: 17  
 OECI (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development) 4: 6  
 Oeno Island 5: 38  
 Offshore Islands (New Zealand) 5: 25  
 Ogaden region 1: 108, 109, 112, 114, 116  
 Oghomoshio 1: 169, 170  
 Oghuz people 4: 308  
 Ogooue 1: 220  
 Ogooue River 1: 207, 211, 219, 220  
 O'Gorman, Juan 2: 107  
 Ogun 1: 169  
 O'Higgins, Bernardo 2: 246  
 Ohio 2: 6, 31, 35  
 Ohio River 2: 37, 45  
 Ohrid Lake 4: 234, 248  
 Oio 1: 164  
 Oise River 4: 64  
 Oita 3: 192  
 Ojeda, Alonso de 2: 209  
 Ojos del Salado Mount 2: 237, 290  
 Okahandja 1: 294  
 Okanda National Park 1: 219  
 Okavango River 1: 277, 278  
 Okavaya 3: 192  
 Okinawa 3: 192  
 Oklahoma 2: 29, 31, 35, 37, 36  
 Oksfort 4: 205  
 Oku Mount 1: 21  
 Olbuntan Atolabi 1: 173  
 Olaf II Haraldsson (the Saint) king of Norway 4: 140  
 Olaf V, king of Norway 4: 140  
 Olafsson, Eggert 4: 133  
 Olancha 2: 97  
 Oland Island 4: 147  
 Old Farthing Cresser 2: 29, 5: 135  
 Old World 4: 1  
 Oleg 4: 303  
 Olinda (*see* Recife)  
 Olinto Antonio 1: 5, 6, 8  
 Oliphants River 1: 296  
 Olmec civilization 2: 92, 110  
 Olmec people 2: 82  
 Olmedo, Joaquim 2: 255  
 Olomouc 4: 178  
 Olstyn 4: 194  
 Olt 4: 250  
 Olt River 4: 249  
 Oltema 4: 251  
 Olympia Sylvanus 1: 180  
 Olympus Mount (Thessaly) 4: 14  
 Olympus Mount (Cyprus) 3: 25  
 Oman 1: 226, 3: 6, 21, 49, 50  
 Oman Gulf of 3: 49  
 Omant Arabs 1: 236  
 Omaruru 1: 294  
 Omayyad dynasty (*see* Umayyad dynasty)  
 Ombella M'poko 1: 215  
 Omdurman 1: 76, 77  
 Ometepe Island 2: 108  
 Omnogovi 3: 203  
 Ono River 1: 108  
 Onoa 2: 96  
 Onisk 4: 293, 299, 300  
 Onivene people 1: 219  
 Ona Pedro de 2: 246  
 Ondelkaremba 1: 294  
 Ondo 1: 169  
 Ondorhaan 3: 204  
 Onega Lake 4: 2, 297
- O'Neill, Eugene 2: 43  
 Onetti, Juan Carlos 2: 308  
 Onon River 3: 202  
 Ontario 2: 14, 15, 17, 18, 19, 23, 46, 120  
 Ontario, Lake 2: 13, 17, 45, 48  
 Ontong Java Atoll 5: 31  
 Ootse 1: 279  
 OPEC (Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries) 5: 164  
 Operation Virgin Lands 4: 292  
 Opium War (1839-1842) 3: 181, 340  
 Opole 4: 194  
 Oporto [*see* Porto (Portugal)]  
 Oppermans, D. J. 1: 300  
 Oppland 4: 138  
 Oran 1: 11, 12, 13, 14, 15  
 Orang Laut people 3: 307  
 Orange Free State 1: 296, 297, 298, 299  
 Orange River 1: 3, 274, 277, 281, 282, 296, 297, 309  
 Orange Walk 2: 86  
 Oranjestad (Aruba) 2: 339  
 Oranjestad (Sint Eustatius) 2: 339  
 Orapa 1: 278, 279  
 Ordzhonikidze 4: 302  
 Orebro 4: 142, 143  
 Oregon 2: 31  
 Orel 4: 299  
 Orenburg 4: 299  
 Orenburg Basin 4: 302  
 Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) 4: 6  
 Organization of African Unity (OAU) 1: 177, 297, 5: 159  
 Organization of American States 2: 150  
 Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) 5: 164  
 Organos, Sierra de los 2: 147, 169  
 Orinon River 3: 202, 204  
 Orincic 2: 139  
 Orinoco Plain 2: 208  
 Orinoco River 2: 81, 205, 207  
 Orissa 3: 109  
 Orizaba Mount 2: 99  
 Orkney Islands 4: 57, 71, 72  
 Orkney Islands, South 5: 91  
 Orlando 2: 33  
 Oro (Papua New Guinea) 5: 29  
 Orohena Mount 5: 40  
 Orontes River 3: 47, 52, 54  
 Orozco, Jose Clemente 2: 107  
 Orsay, Musée d' 4: 67  
 Ortega, Daniel 2: 111  
 Ortega, Salvador 2: 107  
 Otellus, Abraham 5: 171  
 Orthodox Religion (*see* Eastern Orthodoxy)  
 Otrero 2: 239, 241  
 Osa Peninsula 2: 87, 88  
 Osaka 3: 191, 192, 193, 196, 197  
 Osborne, John 4: 78  
 Oscan people 4: 20  
 Osculan, Gaetano 2: 253, 254  
 Oshogbo 1: 169, 170  
 Oshjek 4: 243  
 Oskarshamn 4: 143  
 Osting 4: 82-83  
 Oslo 4: 4, 137, 138, 139  
 Osmanid dynasty (*see* Ottoman Empire)  
 Osmantli people 4: 232  
 Osorio, Oscar 2: 92  
 Ossetia 4: 302  
 Ossetian people 4: 290  
 Ostend 4: 60, 62  
 Ostergotland 4: 143  
 Ostersund 4: 142  
 Østfold 4: 138  
 Ostmark 4: 175, 176  
 Ostrava 4: 177, 178, 179  
 Ostrava Basin 4: 178  
 Ostrogothic kingdom 4: 11  
 Ostrogoths 4: 8, 256  
 Ostrołęka 4: 194
- Osun 1: 169  
 Otago 5: 24, 25  
 Otanu 3: 197  
 Otavalo 2: 263  
 Oteli Rosu 4: 251  
 Otgon Tenger (mountain) 3: 202  
 Othar 5: 88  
 Oti River 1: 156, 179  
 Otjwarongo 1: 294  
 Ottawa 2: 12, 13, 17, 19, 47, 120  
 Ottawa River 2: 17  
 Otto I, king of Germany 4: 25  
 Otto of Wittensbach 4: 17  
 Ottoman Empire 1: 25, 34, 3: 9, 21, 30, 40, 44, 48, 55, 60, 62, 4: 9, 12, 17, 176, 198, 232, 235, 243, 246, 247, 248, 252, 286, 296 (*see also* Seljuk Turks)  
 Ottomans 1: 20, 23, 27  
 Otztaler Alps 4: 173  
 Ouachita Mountains 2: 25  
 Ouadane 1: 70  
 Ouaddai 1: 63  
 Ouaddai kingdom 1: 64  
 Ouagadougou 1: 5, 146, 147, 148  
 Ouahigouya 1: 147  
 Ouaka 1: 215  
 Ouagla 1: 13, 14  
 Ouazazate 1: 28  
 Ouhimbeya 1: 147  
 Oudalam 1: 147  
 Oudomxay 3: 255  
 Oued el 1: 13  
 Oued El Dahab 1: 28  
 Oueddei, Koukoum 1: 65  
 Oueme 1: 145  
 Oueme River 1: 145  
 Ouest (department Haiti) 2: 162  
 Ouham 1: 215  
 Ouham River 1: 62  
 Oujda 1: 28  
 Oulu 4: 129, 130  
 Oulir Lake 4: 129  
 Oum el Bouaghi 1: 13  
 Oum el Rhia, Wadi 1: 26  
 Omnic 1: 152  
 Ouse River 4: 72  
 Outer Mongolia 3: 205 (*see also* Mongolia)  
 Outjo 1: 294  
 Ovaca Island 5: 39  
 Ovambo people 1: 294  
 Overijssel 4: 190  
 Overseas Provinces, Portuguese 1: 337  
 Overseas Territories, French 1: 148, 5: 38, 39  
 Ovid 4: 8, 75  
 Oyoangany 3: 203  
 Owambo 1: 294  
 Owen, Robert 4: 73, 74, 75  
 Owen Stanley Range 5: 29  
 Oxaca 2: 102  
 Oyakock River 2: 211  
 Oyo 1: 146, 169, 170  
 Oyono 1: 1: 213  
 Oyono Mbua 1: 213  
 Oyrat people 4: 292, 293, 294  
 Ozal Tungut 3: 60  
 Ozark Plateau 2: 25  
 Uzbekistan Respublikasy (*see* Uzbekistan)
- P**
- Paama 5: 37  
 Pacassi, Nikolaas 4: 206  
 Pachacamac people 2: 237  
 Pachlovska, Oxana 4: 310  
 Pacific Ocean 2: 111, 113, 115, 263, 3: 1, 190, 293, 295, 300, 310, 5: 1, 2, 7, 18, 19, 20, 23, 31, 42, 89, 129, 131  
 Pacific Plate 2: 26  
 Pacific Ring of Fire 2: 1, 4: 313  
 Pacific War 2: 84, 246  
 Padang 3: 302, 304  
 Padjelanta National Park 4: 142  
 Padma River 3: 101, 107  
 Padua 4: 21  
 Paekche kingdom 3: 185  
 Paektu san (mountain) 3: 183  
 Paez, Jose Antonio 2: 210  
 Pagan 3: 248, 249, 268  
 Pago Pago 5: 40, 42  
 Pagulu 1: 221, 230  
 Pahang 3: 308  
 Pahang River 3: 306  
 Pahaipui 3: 103  
 Pahlavi dynasty 3: 36  
 Pahloun people 1: 212  
 PAICV (African Party for the Independence of Cape Verde) 1: 150  
 PAICV (African Party for the Independence of Guinea and Cape Verde) 1: 150, 163, 164  
 Pais Vasco 4: 90  
 Pakistan 3: 6, 10, 99, 100, 102, 104, 109, 118, 124, 127, 132, 345  
 Pakistan East 3: 102, 104, 127 (*see also* Bangladesh)  
 Pakistan People's Party 3: 127  
 Pakistani people 3: 20, 51  
 Paklenica National Park 4: 213  
 Paktia 3: 14  
 Paktika 3: 14  
 Paks 4: 258  
 Paku 3: 255  
 Pakve plan 3: 254  
 Palai dynasty 3: 103, 134  
 Palace of Forty Columns 1: 44  
 Palace of Justice (Lima) 2: 164  
 Palace of Forty Columns 1: 34  
 Palace of the Orient (Lunis) 1: 36  
 Palace of the Sciences (Bucharest) 4: 255  
 Palacio Nacional (Mexico City) 2: 116  
 Palapye 1: 279  
 Palau Islands 5: 3, 40  
 Palang people 3: 245  
 Palawan Island 3: 296, 313  
 Palenque region 5: 147  
 Palenque 3: 302  
 Palenque 2: 116  
 Palko Eskimo people 5: 88  
 Palko Finopoid (Amur) people 3: 4  
 Palko Indonesian people 1: 285  
 Paleoafrikan people 1: 180  
 Paleostatic people 2: 3  
 Pilecongeoid people 1: 109, 145  
 Palesudanes people 1: 76  
 Palcozon 1: 15, 137, 138  
 Palcozon 4: 19, 21, 23, 24, 26  
 Palestine 3: 8, 43, 44, 340  
 Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) 3: 30, 340  
 Palestine Plateau 3: 64  
 Palestinian people 3: 12, 29, 30, 47, 15, 46, 47, 48, 51, 53  
 Palk Strait 3: 128  
 Palla Bianca (mountain) 4: 18  
 Pallava dynasty 3: 116  
 Palma de Majorca 4: 89  
 Palmas Cape 1: 167  
 Palmic, Olaf 4: 144  
 Palmer, Nathaniel 5: 94  
 Palmer Vance 5: 16  
 Palmistes, Plaine des 1: 335  
 Palmyra 3: 55  
 Palmyra kingdom 3: 18  
 Pamir 4: 306  
 Pamirs (mountain region) 3: 2, 13, 169-170, 172, 4: 283, 305, 313  
 Pampa Larga 2: 245  
 Pampas 2: 289, 291, 292  
 Pampat 4: 313  
 Pan American Highway 2: 89, 92, 95, 110, 209, 246, 251, 260  
 Panagia Vlacherna, monastery of 4: 31  
 Panama (country) 2: 4, 8, 43, 84, 85, 111, 114, 210, 212, 251

- Panamá (province) 2: 112, 113  
 Panama, Amphictyonic Congress of 2: 84  
 Panama, Gulf of 2: 85, 111  
 Panama, Isthmus of 2: 1, 85, 113  
 Panama Canal 2: 85, 112, 113, 115, 340  
 Panama City 2: 111, 112, 113  
 Panamá la Vieja 2: 113  
 Panchiao 3: 207  
 Pando 2: 239  
 Panevežys 4: 136  
 Pangaea 1: 2, 4; 1, 5: 1, 9  
 Pangani River 1: 233  
 Panhellenic Socialist Movement (PASOK) [Greece] 4: 17  
 Pame Mont 5: 39  
 Pannonia 4: 172, 232, 243  
 Pannonian Basin 4: 244  
 Pannonian lowlands 4: 197, 253, 258  
 Pantai Barat 3: 307  
 Pantheon of the Heroes (Assam) 2: 309, 310  
 Panuco River 2: 100  
 PAP (People's Action Party) [Singapore] 3: 312  
 PAP (People's Alliance Party) [Solomon Islands] 5: 32  
 Papadopoulos, Georgios 4: 17  
 Papal States 4: 12, 13, 26 (*see also* Vatican City)  
 Papaloapan River 2: 100  
 Papandreou, Andreas 4: 17  
 Papete 5: 39  
 Papet people 1: 149  
 Paphos 3: 25  
 Papiamentu language 2: 339  
 Papua, Gulf of 5: 29  
 Papua New Guinea 5: 3, 4, 16, 28, 30, 97  
 Papuan languages 5: 151  
 Papuan people 5: 6, 29, 30, 37, 42  
 Paprik Mountains 4: 242  
 Para (Brazil) 2: 191, 196  
 Para (Suriname) 2: 203  
 Paragana Peninsula 2: 205  
 Paraguan 2: 1, 7, 82, 84, 300, 304, 309, 310, 310  
 Parana River 2: 2, 189, 292, 293, 301, 303  
 Paraíba 2: 191  
 Paraíba Valley 2: 193, 194  
 Parakama massif 2: 200  
 Parakramabahu 3: 130  
 Paramaribo (city) 2: 202, 203, 204  
 Paramaribo (district) 2: 203  
 Parana 2: 191, 195, 196  
 Parana Delta 2: 305  
 Parana Plateau 2: 193  
 Paranaíba 2: 203  
 Parana Marañhao Valley 2: 188  
 Paranaipacaba, Serra do 2: 188  
 Patece Island 5: 38  
 Patia, Gulf of 2: 167  
 Patia Peninsula 2: 205  
 Patcutin Mountain 2: 99  
 Patis 4: 4, 5, 8, 63, 64, 66, 68, 69, 96  
 Patis, Treaty of 2: 16, 41, 166  
 Paris Commune 4: 70  
 Park Mingo 1: 74, 148  
 Park Chung Hee 3: 196  
 Parliament (England) 4: 95  
 Parma 4: 21  
 Parimehutu (Rwanda) 1: 229  
 Parmassos Mount 4: 14, 32  
 Paro Dzong 3: 105  
 Parry, J. H. 2: 189, 260, 261  
 Parry, William Edward 5: 89  
 Parry Island 5: 86  
 Parsee Zoroastrianism 3: 100  
 Parthenon Hill 4: 32  
 Parthians 3: 36, 39  
 Parti Progressiste Nigérien (Niger) 1: 74  
 Partido Revolucionario Institucional (PRI) [Mexico] 2: 107  
 Parwan 3: 14  
 Pasagadae 3: 33  
 Pasco 2: 258  
 Pashto language 3: 16  
 Pashtun people 3: 13–14  
 Pasir Panjang Bay 3: 311  
 PASOK (Panhellenic Socialist Movement) [Greece] 4: 17  
 Passio 1: 147  
 Pastaza 2: 254  
 Pastaza River 2: 253  
 Pastetze Glacier 4: 174  
 Patagonia 2: 2, 7, 82, 84, 245, 291, 292, 293, 295, 309  
 Patan (Nepal) 3: 122  
 Patan (Qais) 3: 13  
 Paterson, A. B. Banjo 5: 16  
 Pathan people 3: 13, 125  
 Pathet Lao 3: 256  
 Patkar Hills 3: 246  
 Pattas 4: 15, 16  
 Patrimony of St. Peter 4: 25  
 Pattakos, Stylianos 4: 17  
 Patterson, Percival 2: 159  
 Patuca River 2: 96  
 Pau 4: 68  
 Paul I, czar of Russia 4: 290  
 Paul II, pope 4: 179  
 Pauline Chapel 4: 13  
 Pavche, Ante 4: 244, 247  
 Pavla 4: 25  
 Pavlodar 4: 292  
 Pax Christi International 2: 111  
 Paya I elbar 3: 312  
 Payer, Julius von 5: 87, 89  
 Pays de la Loire 4: 66  
 Paysandu (city) 2: 307  
 Paysandu (department) 2: 306  
 Paz, Octavio 2: 8, 106, 107, 107  
 Paz Zamora, Jaime 2: 241  
 Pazdzhik 4: 239  
 PC A (Algerian Communist Party) 1: 15  
 PIDA (Democratic Party of Albania) 4: 235  
 PIDC (Democratic Party of Guinea) 1: 162  
 PIDPA (People's Democratic Party of Afghanistan) 3: 16  
 Peace River 2: 36  
 Pearl River 3: 339  
 Pearls (Grenada) 2: 160  
 Pearry, Robert 5: 90  
 Pechora 4: 302  
 Pechora River 4: 2, 5: 85  
 Pecs 4: 254, 255  
 Pedali people 1: 145  
 Pedernales 2: 154  
 Pedras River 3: 25  
 Pedro I, emperor of Brazil 2: 198  
 Pedro II, emperor of Brazil 2: 198  
 Pedro V, king of Portugal 4: 87  
 Pedrosa, Coma 4: 59  
 Peel, Robert 4: 78  
 Pegu 3: 247, 248  
 Pegu kingdom 3: 256  
 Pegu people 3: 249  
 Pehuenci people 2: 243, 244  
 Peking (*see* Beijing)  
 Peking man 3: 4, 176  
 Pelagian Islands 4: 9  
 Pelée Mount 2: 3, 5: 135  
 Pelister Mount 4: 247  
 Pella 3: 345  
 Pellister National Park 4: 248  
 Peloponnesos 4: 16, 17, 32  
 Peloponnesos Mountains 4: 12, 14  
 Pelotitani Mountains 4: 19  
 Peloux Mount 4: 64  
 Pemba 1: 233, 234, 235, 236, 291  
 Puna Park 4: 85  
 Penaambo Mountains 3: 306  
 Penares people 2: 211  
 Pendé 1: 215  
 Pendjari National Park 1: 145  
 Pendjari River 1: 145  
 Penghu Ichiho 3: 206, 207  
 Penguin Islands 1: 296  
 Penibético, Sistema 4: 89  
 Penner River 3: 108  
 Pennine Alps (Italy) 4: 18  
 Pennine Chain (England) 4: 71  
 Pennsylvania 2: 6, 31, 35  
 Peñón de Alhucemas 1: 337  
 Penon de Velez de la Gomera 1: 337  
 Pentecost Island 5: 36, 37  
 Pentecostalism 4: 128  
 Penza 4: 299  
 People's Action Party (PAP) [Singapore] 3: 312  
 People's Alliance Party (PAP) [Solomon Islands] 5: 32  
 People's Democratic Party of Afghanistan (PDPA) 3: 16  
 People's Democratic Republic of Yemen (*see* Yemen)  
 People's National Congress (PNC) [Guyana] 2: 201  
 People's National Movement (Trinidad and Tobago) 2: 167  
 People's National Party (Jamaica) 2: 157  
 People's Party (Mauritania) 1: 71  
 People's Progressive Front (Seychelles) 1: 232  
 People's Progressive Party (PPP) [Guyana] 2: 201  
 People's Republic of China (*see* China)  
 People's Republic of Mongolia 3: 205  
 People's Revolutionary Party (Mongolia) 3: 203  
 People's United Party (Belize) 2: 87  
 Pepel 1: 178  
 Pepper Coast 1: 167, 178  
 Perak 3: 308  
 Perak River 3: 306  
 Peravia 2: 154  
 Periera, Aristides 1: 150  
 Peres, Shimon 3: 44  
 Perez, Ronaldé, Juan Antonio 2: 210  
 Pergamon 3: 313  
 Pericles of Athens 4: 7  
 Perina, Serafina de 2: 249  
 Perija, Sierra de 2: 205, 211  
 Periphrasis of the *Indistinctum* Sea 3: 347  
 Periyar Wildlife Sanctuaries 3: 108  
 Perlis 3: 308  
 Perim 4: 299, 300  
 Pernambuco 2: 191, 195, 196  
 Perimik 4: 239  
 Peron, Juan Domingo 2: 298  
 Perry, Matthew 3: 200  
 Persekutuan 1, mab Malaysia (*see* Malaysia)  
 Persepolis 3: 32, 33, 36, 66, 315  
 Persia 3: 1, 8, 351 (*see also* Iran)  
 Persian Empire 3: 21, 39, 59, 342, 343, 4: 287  
 Persian Gulf 3: 11, 31, 32, 39, 49, 347  
 Persian Gulf War 2: 44  
 Persian language 3: 32, 36, 66, 116  
 Persians 1: 285, 3: 8, 16, 32, 36, 40, 45, 48, 55, 62, 298, 345, 4: 7, 286, 290, 314  
 Perth 5: 7, 8, 11, 12, 14  
 Peru 2: 3, 4, 6, 87, 84, 187, 237, 246, 256, 262, 264, 5: 97  
 Peru, Vicinity of 2: 246, 255, 261, 297, 303  
 Peru, French 2: 247  
 Pescadores Islands 3: 206, 207  
 Peshawar 3: 124, 125  
 Pest 4: 254, 258  
 Petah, Tuvia 3: 42  
 Petain, Marshal 4: 70  
 Peten (department) 2: 94  
 Peten Plateau 2: 92, 93, 94  
 Peten region 2: 84  
 Peter I, czar of Russia 4: 9, 287, 303, 313, 314  
 Peter I Karageorgevic, king of Serbia 4: 247  
 Peterloo Massacre 4: 78  
 Petionville 2: 162  
 Petit Bassam Island 1: 152  
 Petit Ouanago National Park 1: 219  
 Petit Piton (mountain) 2: 165  
 Petit Terre, Ile de la 2: 338  
 Petöfi, Sándor 4: 256  
 Petra 3: 18, 66  
 Petri, Olaus 4: 144  
 Petrosani Basin 4: 251  
 Petrovsk 4: 302  
 Peul people 1: 147, 163, 174, 177, 179  
 Pezzini, Isabella 1: 25  
 Phanariots 4: 252  
 Phenix Marconi 4: 68  
 Philadelphia 2: 29, 33, 38, 39, 40  
 Philip II (the Bold), duke of Burgundy 4: 191  
 Philip II, king of France 4: 69  
 Philip II, king of Macedonia 4: 7, 248  
 Philip II, king of Spain 4: 9, 62, 77, 87, 93, 94, 190  
 Philip III (the Good), duke of Burgundy 4: 62, 83  
 Philip V, king of Spain 4: 94  
 Philippine Trench 3: 296, 300  
 Philippines 2: 33, 3: 6, 295, 299, 313, 314  
 Phillips, Wendell 3: 56  
 Philomela, R. 1: 213  
 Philosophes 4: 70  
 Phitsanulok 3: 258  
 Phnom Penh 3: 6, 250, 251, 252, 253  
 Phoenicians 1: 34, 3: 26, 4: 7, 20, 24, 28, 29, 93  
 Phoenix Islands 5: 19, 20  
 Phongsavh 3: 255  
 Phrygian Plateau 3: 57  
 Phu Khanh 3: 263  
 Phu Tho 3: 264  
 Phuket 3: 259, 260  
 Phumtholing 3: 105  
 Piacenza 4: 21  
 Piao dynasty 4: 195, 196  
 Piau 2: 191  
 Pibul Songgrani 3: 261  
 Pic (*see* substantive word)  
 Picardy (Picardie) 4: 66  
 Picasso, Pablo 4: 74  
 Picent people 4: 21  
 Pichindé, Franklin 1: 2: 156  
 Pichincha 2: 254  
 Pico (*see* substantive word)  
 Pidginti 1: 163  
 Pidmatalagala Mount 3: 128  
 Piedmont Plateau 2: 25  
 Piedris Negras 2: 95  
 Picmonte 4: 21, 23, 172  
 Penny National Park 4: 197  
 Permarini Giuseppe 4: 26  
 Piero della Francesca 4: 26  
 Peter Both Mountain 1: 289  
 Pigealetta, Filippo 1: 245, 292, 308  
 Pija, Sierra de 2: 96  
 Pika Pobedy (*see* Pobedy, Pika)  
 Pike 1: 278, 279  
 Pila 4: 194  
 Pilcomayo River 2: 291, 292, 301  
 Pilgrims 2: 40  
 Pilipino (Filipino) language 3: 296  
 Pillars of Hercules 4: 12  
 Pilsen 4: 178  
 Pilsudski, Józef 4: 196  
 Pinang 3: 307, 308, 309  
 Pinang Island 3: 310  
 Pinar del Rio 2: 147, 148, 149  
 Pinatubo Mount 3: 313, 5: 135  
 Pindar 4: 7  
 Pindling, Lynden O. 2: 144  
 Pinchos Mountains 4: 12, 14, 233, 257  
 Pineda, Grégoire National Park 4: 85  
 Pines, Isle of 5: 39  
 Pingtung 3: 207  
 Pimilla, Rojas 2: 252  
 Pinos River 4: 14, 32  
 Pinochet, Ugarte, Augusto 2: 245, 247  
 Pinter, Harold 4: 78  
 Pinto, Fernando Mendes 3: 178  
 Piotrkow 4: 194  
 Pipil people 2: 90, 92, 110  
 Piraeus 4: 16  
 Pirin Highlands 4: 240  
 Pis, Pis 2: 110  
 Pisa 4: 21  
 Pistona 4: 21  
 Pisu, Renata 3: 173, 174  
 Pitcairn Island 5: 38, 39  
 Pitch Lake 2: 167  
 Piteá 4: 142  
 Pitești 4: 250, 251  
*Pithecanthropus erectus* 3: 304  
 Piton de la Fournaise 1: 335  
 Piton de la Rivière Noire 1: 289  
 Piton des Neiges 1: 335  
 Piton Lacroix 2: 338  
 Pitt, William 4: 78, 81  
 Pittsburgh 2: 33, 37, 38  
 Pitra 2: 258  
 Pizarro, Francisco 2: 164, 261  
 Pizon, Vicente 2: 201  
 PKI (Indonesian Communist Party) 3: 305  
 Pla, Josefina 2: 304  
 Placer 2: 208  
 Placido 2: 150  
 Plaine des Cafres 1: 335  
 Plaisance 1: 289  
 Plained, Ralph 5: 90  
 Plantagenet dynasty 4: 77  
 Plata, Mar del 2: 297, 310  
 Plata, America 2: 4, 189, 310  
 Plata Chuquiyacu (*see* Sucre (Bolivia))  
 Plata River 2: 81  
 Plateau (state, Nigeria) 1: 169  
 Plateau (district, Ivory Coast) 1: 152  
 Plateaux (region, Congo) 1: 217  
 Plato 4: 7  
 Playa Brava 2: 310  
 Playa de los Ingles 5: 173  
 Plaza de (*see* substantive word)  
 Pl 1 (Liberty Party) (Dominica) 2: 152  
 Pleistocene Epoch 5: 146  
 Pleven 4: 239  
 Pliny the Elder 4: 8  
 Plitvica Lakes National Park 4: 243  
 PI O (Palestine Liberation Organization) 3: 30, 340  
 Plock 4: 194  
 Ploes 4: 288  
 Ploesti 4: 250, 251, 258  
 Plomb de Cantal 4: 64  
 Plomer, William 1: 300  
 Plovdiv 4: 239, 241  
 PI P (Progressive Liberal Party) (Bahamas) 2: 144  
 Pluto 5: 125  
 Plymouth (England) 4: 72  
 Plymouth (Montserrat) 2: 336  
 PNC (People's National Congress) [Guyana] 2: 201  
 PNI (Indonesian Nationalist Party) 3: 305  
 Poiregon 4: 3, 5, 11, 20, 22  
 Po River 4: 2, 19  
 Poas National Park 2: 88  
 Pobedy, Pika (Victory Peak) 3: 169, 4: 291, 293  
 Poblacht Na h-Ireann (*see* Ireland)  
 Podgorica (Titograd) 4: 235, 245  
 Podolia massif 4: 308  
 Poe, Edgar Allan 2: 42  
 Pohang 3: 189  
 Pohjois-Karjala 4: 129  
 Pohorje Island 5: 21, 22  
 Pohorje massif 4: 199  
 Point Central (Mauritania) 1: 70, 71  
 Point Fortin 2: 167  
 Point Salines 2: 160  
 Ponte des Galets 1: 336  
 Pointe Noire 1: 216, 217, 218, 248

- Poutou Charentes 4: 66  
 Pokhara 3: 122  
 Poku Aura 1: 153  
 Pol Pot 3: 252 253  
 Pola 4: 258  
 Poland 4: 4 9 10 122 136  
 171 186 191 196 205  
 206 304 310 5: 97  
 Polanie people 4: 195  
 Polar regions 5: 85 100  
 Polinario 1: 70 71 337  
 Polish people 4: 193  
 Polish plain 4: 193  
 Polish Succession, War of the  
 4: 26 176  
 Polito Fumio 2: 160  
 Pollino Monte 4: 19  
 Pollo 1: 175  
 Polo Marco 1: 274 3: 1 11  
 194 245 249 350 351  
 Polo Matteo 3: 351  
 Polo, Nicolo 3: 351  
 Polomaruva 3: 130 134  
 Polotsk 4: 289  
 Polska Rzeczpospolita (*see*  
 Poland)  
 Poltava 4: 309  
 Polynesia 5: 1 2 4 41  
 Polynesia French 5: 3 39 40  
 Polynesian people 3: 206 5: 3  
 5 6 18 20 23 27 31 33  
 34 36 37 39 40 93  
 Pomerom Superam 2: 200  
 Pompeii 5: 135  
 Pompey 4: 24  
 Pompidou Georges 4: 70  
 Ponce 2: 340  
 Pondicherry 3: 109  
 Poni 1: 147  
 Pomatowska Elena 2: 107  
 Pomatowski Stanislaw 4: 196  
 Ponta Delgada 4: 86  
 Pontic Cape de 5: 174  
 Pontic Mountains 3: 57 59 343  
 Pontianak 3: 300  
 Ponta 4: 19  
 Poo, Fernando 1: 212 222  
 Pool (Congo) 1: 217  
 Popayan 2: 248  
 Popocatepetl Mountain 2: 90  
 101  
 Popocatepetl National Park  
 2: 101  
 Popul Vuh 2: 105  
 Popular Front (France) 4: 70  
 Popular Front for the Liberation  
 of Oman and the Arabian  
 Gulf (FPL OGA) 3: 50  
 Popular Movement for the  
 Liberation of Angola  
 (MPLA) 1: 277  
 Popular Party of the Overseas  
 Conventions (Ghana) 1: 159  
 Popular Socialist Community  
 (Cambodia) 3: 253  
 Popular Unity (Chile) 2: 217  
 Populca people 2: 90  
 Pordenone 4: 21  
 Porsgrunn 4: 139  
 Port (Finland) 4: 129  
 Port Antonio 2: 157  
 Port au Prince 2: 161 162 170  
 Port Bouët 1: 153  
 Port d'Embalure 4: 59  
 Port Elizabeth (South Africa)  
 1: 297, 298 299  
 Port Etienne (*see* Nouadhibou)  
 Port Gentil 1: 219 220  
 Port Harcourt 1: 168 169 170  
 171  
 Port Kembla 5: 14  
 Port Loko 1: 178  
 Port Louis 1: 5 288 289  
 Port Maria 2: 157  
 Port Moresby 5: 4, 28, 29 30  
 Port of Spain 2: 167, 168  
 Port Royal 2: 157  
 Port Said 1: 18, 20  
 Port San Pedro 1: 153  
 Port Sudan 1: 75 76, 77, 78  
 Port Vila 5: 4  
 Porter Hal 5: 17  
 Portes d'Enfer Falls 1: 241  
 Portillo José López 2: 107  
 Portinari E 4: 61  
 Portland (Jamaica) 2: 157  
 Porto (Portugal) 4: 84 85, 86,  
 87 96  
 Porto Alegre 2: 189 191, 196  
 Porto Alexandre 1: 276  
 Porto Amboni 1: 276  
 Porto Loxi 4: 23  
 Porto Grande 1: 150 181  
 Porto Novo 1: 5 145  
 Porto Santo Island 1: 337  
 Porto Velho 2: 191  
 Portsmouth (Dominica) 2: 15  
 Portugal 2: 7 83, 197 198  
 4: 4 57 58 84-87 95 96  
 Portugal, possessions in Africa  
 1: 5, 293 337  
 Portugal, possessions in Asia  
 1: 5 337 3: 6 340  
 Portuguese 2: 207  
 Portuguese Guinea 1: 150  
 Portuguese people 1: 164 226  
 274 275 276 277 277  
 290 292 3: 9 309 310 340  
 Porus 3: 345  
 Poseidon Temple of 4: 32  
 Poseidonia 4: 21  
 Pososi 2: 239  
 Potaro River 2: 200  
 Potaro Siparuni 2: 200  
 Potato famine 2: 29 30 4, 80  
 Potomac River 2: 47  
 Potou people 2: 90  
 Potosi 2: 241 264  
 Potwat Plateau 3: 124 125  
 Pound Eliza 2: 43 45 23 24  
 Pounds Norman J G 5: 163  
 168  
 Povung Mountain 4: 245  
 Povungnit 1: 231  
 Poznan 4: 193 194 195  
 PPA (Algerian Popular Party)  
 1: 15  
 PPP (People's Progressive  
 Party) (Guyana) 2: 201  
 Pra River 1: 156  
 Pradesh 3: 109  
 Prado Pedro 2: 246  
 Prado Manuel 2: 262  
 Pragmatic Sanction 4: 176  
 Prague (Praha) 4: 4 177 178  
 179 206  
 Prague, Delesteration of  
 4: 176 179  
 Prague Spring 4: 179  
 Prahova 4: 250  
 Praia 1: 5 149 150  
 Prairies Riviere des 2: 17  
 Prakrit dialects 3: 99 100  
 Prambanan Temple 3: 404  
 Prathet Thai (*see* Thailand)  
 Prato 4: 21 33  
 Preah Vihear 3: 251  
 Precambrian Era 5: 137  
 Premysl dynasty 4: 179  
 Presbyterianism 2: 17  
 Presidente Hayes (department  
 Paraguay) 2: 302  
 Preslav 4: 241  
 Prespa Lake 4: 248  
 Pressburg 4: 4 197 198  
 Prestea 1: 158  
 Pretoria 1: 5 295 296 297  
 299 310  
 Pretorius S J 1: 300  
 Prey Veng 3: 251  
 PRI (Partido Revolucionario  
 Institucional) [Mexico] 2: 107  
 Priam 4: 200  
 Prichard Katharine Susannah  
 5: 16  
 Prilep 4: 248  
 Primo de Rivera Miguel 4: 94  
 Primorski Krai region 4: 299  
 314  
 Prince Charles Mountains 5: 96  
 Prince Edward Island (Canada)  
 2: 15 17  
 Prince Edward Island  
 (Antarctica) 5: 91  
 Prince Edward Island (South  
 Africa) 1: 296  
 Prince of Wales Island 5: 88  
 Prince Patrick Island 5: 88  
 Princip, Gavriilo 4: 236  
 Principal Andorra (*see*  
 Andorra)  
 Principauté d'Andorre (*see*  
 Andorra)  
 Principauté de Monaco (*see*  
 Monaco)  
 Principe Island (*see* São Tomé e  
 Príncipe)  
 Prinoco River 2: 2  
 Prinzipolca River 2: 108, 110  
 Pripyat River 4: 288  
 Prispia Lake 4: 15  
 Pristina 4: 245  
 Proconsul 5: 148 151  
 Progreso 2: 104  
 Progressive Liberal Party (PLP)  
 [Bahamas] 2: 144  
 Progressive Nationalist Party  
 (Myanmar) 3: 250  
 Prost Laurents van der 1: 300  
 Protestant Reformation (*see*  
 Reformation)  
 Protestantism 2: 10 32 40  
 143 160 165 167 336,  
 4: 70 81 125 133 134  
 136 142 186 196 204 250  
 Provence 4: 96  
 Provence Alpes Coted Azur  
 4: 66  
 Providenciales 2: 337  
 Prudhoe Bay 5: 90  
 Prussia 4: 9 10 125  
 Prut River 4: 249  
 Przemysl 4: 194  
 PSD (Destour Socialist Party)  
 1: 34  
 Psicharis Ioannis 4: 17  
 Pskov 4: 299 303  
 Psunj Mountains 4: 242  
 Ptolemaic dynasty 1: 20  
 Ptolemy 3: 29 5: 129  
 Puccini Giacomo 4: 10  
 Puchalla 2: 154  
 Pundjanga Bahr movement  
 3: 305  
 Puebla 2: 102 104  
 Pueblo people 2: 29  
 Puelche people 2: 297  
 Puerto Barrios 2: 94 95  
 Puerto Cabeallo 2: 209  
 Puerto Cabezas 2: 110  
 Puerto Casado 2: 300  
 Puerto Cortes 2: 96  
 Puerto Hormiga 2: 237  
 Puerto La Cruz 2: 208 209  
 Puerto Madero 2: 310  
 Puerto Madryn 2: 291  
 Puerto Nuevo 2: 253 254  
 Puerto Plata 2: 153 154 155  
 Puerto Rico 2: 24 43 141 340  
 Puerto Rico French 2: 85 141  
 Pugachov Yemelyan 4: 304  
 Pui i Khoriri 3: 15  
 Pula 4: 243  
 Pule anga Lakatu i Olonga  
 (*see* Tonga)  
 Pulog Mount 3: 296  
 Puna de Atacama 2: 290  
 Punakha 3: 105  
 Puncak Jaya (mountain) 5: 29  
 Punic Wars 4: 24  
 Punjab 3: 100, 107 109 114  
 123 124-125 125 127 133  
 Puno 2: 258  
 Punsalmagyrin Ochibat  
 3: 205  
 Punt 3: 347  
 Punta, Cerro de 2: 340  
 Punta Arenas 2: 243  
 Punta Cardon 2: 208  
 Punta Delgada 2: 245  
 Puntarenas (city) 2: 88 89  
 Puntarenas (province) 2: 88  
 Purari River 5: 29  
 Pututanin 2: 40, 42  
 Pursat 3: 251  
 Puruveni, Lake 4: 146  
 Pusan 3: 187, 188, 189 190  
 Puttalam 3: 130  
 Putumayo 2: 250  
 Putumayo River 2: 248, 253  
 Puy de Sancy (mountain) 4: 64  
 Pwani 1: 235  
 Pyeidaungzu Myanmar  
 Naingandau (*see*  
 Myanmar)  
 Pygmies 1: 4, 207, 212, 214,  
 217 218, 219, 221, 228  
 242, 247, 303  
 Pygmyoid people 1: 287, 3: 4,  
 5: 29  
 P'yongan namdo 3: 184  
 P'yongan-pukto 3: 184  
 P'yongyang 3: 6 182, 183 184  
 185, 186 210  
 P'yongyang plain 3: 183  
 Pyñhan people 3: 185  
 Pyramid of the Sun 2: 116  
 Pyramids (Egypt) 1: 20  
 Pyrenees Mountains 4: 68 89,  
 95  
 Pythagoras 5: 129 130  
 Pytheas 5: 88  
 Pyu people 3: 249  
**Q**  
 Qacha's Nek 1: 282  
 Qadafi Muammar al 1: 25  
 36  
 Qadisiyah al 3: 38  
 Qaidam Basin 3: 170  
 Qais 3: 13  
 Qajar dynasty 3: 33 36  
 Qalubia 1: 18  
 Qarawiyin Mosque 1: 30  
 Qarmatians 3: 21 62  
 Qaryat al Zuwaynah 1: 24  
 Qataban kingdom 3: 18 63  
 Qatar 3: 6 51 52 65 5: 164  
 Qatna 3: 55  
 Qattara Depression 1: 17 19  
 Qazvin 3: 32 33  
 Qena 1: 18  
 Qilian Shan 3: 170  
 Qin (Ch'in) dynasty 3: 177 179  
 Qin I ng 3: 169  
 Qin Shi Huangdi 3: 177 178  
 209  
 Qing (Ch'ing) dynasty  
 3: 180-181 186 205  
 Qindao 3: 175  
 Qinghai 3: 171 172  
 Qishu sultan of 1: 338  
 Qom 3: 32 33  
 Quadi people 4: 195  
 Quadrants 2: 154  
 Quang Nam 3: 263  
 Quang Ngai 3: 264  
 Quang Ninh 3: 263  
 Quang Yen 3: 264  
 Quarenglu Giacomo 4: 314  
 Quasars 5: 171  
 Quaternary Period 5: 137 138  
 146  
 Quatre Bornes 1: 289  
 Que Que 1: 303  
 Québec (city) 2: 15 22  
 Québec (province) 2: 9 13 14  
 15 16 17-18 19 22 23  
 46 47 120  
 Quebecois 2: 16  
 Quechua language 2: 258 261  
 Quechua people 2: 239 293  
 Queen Elizabeth Islands 2: 13  
 5: 88  
 Queens (New York City) 2: 33  
 47  
 Queensland 5: 9 10 11 13, 14  
 16 43  
 Queros Pedro de 5: 5  
 Quelmane 1: 292  
 Quemoy Island 3: 206  
 Querandí people 2: 297  
 Querétaro 2: 102 116  
 Quetta 3: 124  
 Quetzalcoatl Kukulkan 2: 116  
 Quetzaltenango (city) 2: 94  
 Quetzaltenango (department)  
 2: 94  
 Quezon City 3: 297  
 Qui Nhon 3: 263  
 Quicáma National Park 1: 275  
 Quichy 2: 94  
 Quilica, Polco 1: 1-2, 7, 66,  
 218, 227, 3: 118, 5: 5, 27, 33  
 Quilombo de Palmares people  
 2: 198  
 Quima Cruz, Cordillera de  
 2: 238  
 Quinara 1: 164  
 Quindío 2: 250  
 Quintana Roo 2: 102  
 Quintilian 4: 93  
 Quito 2: 164, 252, 253, 256  
 Qunaytirah, al 3: 54  
 Qurayyat 3: 19  
 Quthing 1: 282  
 Qwaqwa people 1: 297  
**R**  
 Ra 5: 18  
 Raab River 4: 174  
 Rahab 1: 64 74 78  
 Rabat 1: 5 7 26 27 28 71  
 Rabaul 5: 30  
 Rabbath Ammon 3: 29  
 Rabelais François 4: 69  
 Rabemananjara 1: 1: 286  
 Rabuka Sitiveni 5: 19  
 Rachidia F 1: 28  
 Radama 1: 1: 285  
 Radom 4: 194  
 Rafiq al Machdam Achmed  
 1: 25  
 Rafsanjani Ali Akbar Hashemi  
 3: 36  
 Rahman Mujibur 3: 104  
 Rahman Zia ul 3: 104  
 Ratat Island 5: 40  
 Raudak River 3: 104  
 Raminic Mount 2, 25  
 Ramer III prince of Monaco  
 4: 29  
 Ranivavao Island 5: 40  
 Rangoon River 3: 306 308  
 Rajasthan 3: 109 132  
 Rajshahi 3: 102  
 Rakata River 5: 24  
 Rakkine 3: 247  
 Raleigh Sir Walter 2: 40  
 Raleigh Falls 2, 202  
 Rakit (island chain) 5, 70  
 Ramat 11 3: 260  
 Ramad Tell 3: 55  
 Ramadi ar 3: 37  
 Ramat Gai 3: 17  
 Ramayana 3: 114 253  
 Ramirez Ignacio 2, 106  
 Ramu River 5: 29  
 Rana dynasty 3: 123  
 Ranavalona III queen of  
 Madagascar 1: 285 286  
 Rancagua 2: 244 264  
 Randeris 4: 124  
 Rangiroa Atoll 5: 40  
 Rangoon (*see* Yangon)  
 Ranong 3: 259  
 Rapa Island 5: 40  
 Raphael 4: 13 26  
 Rapti 3: 122  
 Raqqah Al 3: 54  
 Rarotonga Island 5: 40  
 Ras (*see* substantive word)  
 Rasdanj 1: 108  
 Rasmussen, Knud 5: 90  
 Rassemblement Democratique  
 Africain (RDA) 1: 68 153  
 Rassemblement du Peuple  
 Iogolais 1: 180  
 Rastatt Treaty of 4: 94  
 Rastrelli, Bartolomeo Francesco  
 4: 303 314 314  
 Rasulids Sunni 3: 62  
 Ratak (island chain) 5: 20 21  
 Ratanakiri 3: 251  
 Ratmalana 3: 130  
 Ratzel, Friedrich 4: 12  
 Raudhatun 3: 45  
 Raikunata Range 5: 24  
 Rauschenberg, Robert 2: 43  
 Ravenna 4: 23 25  
 Ravi River 3: 107 125  
 Rawalpindi 3: 125  
 Razgrad 4: 239  
 Quaych 2: 94  
 Quilica, Polco 1: 1-2, 7, 66,  
 218, 227, 3: 118, 5: 5, 27, 33

- Reagan administration 2: 8, 34  
 Reul, Cordilleu 2: 238  
 Reason, Age of 4: 77  
 Recife 2: 189, 191, 192, 198  
 Reconcavo 2: 191  
 Reconquest 4: 85, 87, 90, 93  
 Reconstruction Act of 1867 (U.S.) 2: 42  
 Red Carib people 2: 141  
 Red River (Canada) 2: 13  
 Red Sea 1: 18, 19, 75, 105, 106, 108, 110, 111, 112, 117, 3: 1, 29, 347  
 Red Square 4: 314  
 Redcliff (Zimbabwe) 1: 307  
 Redonda 2: 142  
 Reeves, William Pember 5: 28  
 Reformation 2: 10, 4: 69, 186, 196, 200, 204  
 Reggio Calabria 4: 19, 21  
 Reggio Emilia 4: 21  
 Regulate 1: 27  
 Rehoboth 1: 294  
 Reino de España (see Spain)  
 Reisa Pass 4: 173  
 Rej, Mikolaj 4: 196  
 Reka River 4: 199  
 Relizane 1: 13  
 Rembrandt 4: 9  
 Renaissance 4: 9, 26, 94, 196  
 RENAMO (Mozambique National Resistance) 1: 293  
 René, Albert 1: 232  
 Republik Sesel (see Seychelles)  
 Republika Demokratika Malagasy (see Madagascar)  
 República de San Marino (see San Marino (country))  
 Repubblica Italiana (see Italy)  
 Repubblika ta' Malta (see Malta)  
 Republic of Biafra (see Biafra)  
 Republic of Botswana (see Botswana)  
 Republic of Cameroon (see Cameroon)  
 Republic of Ghana (see Ghana)  
 Republic of Gran Colombia 2: 210, 212  
 Republic of Kiribati (see Kiribati)  
 Republic of Korea (see South Korea)  
 Republic of Liberia (see Liberia)  
 Republic of Malawi (see Malawi)  
 Republic of Mauritius (see Mauritius)  
 Republic of Namibia (see Namibia)  
 Republic of Natal (see Natal)  
 Republic of Nauru (see Nauru)  
 Republic of Seychelles (see Seychelles)  
 Republic of Sierra Leone (see Sierra Leone)  
 Republic of South Africa (see South Africa)  
 Republic of The Gambia (see Gambia)  
 Republic of the Marshall Islands (see Marshall Islands)  
 Republic of Trinidad and Tobago (see Trinidad and Tobago)  
 Republic of Uganda (see Uganda)  
 Republic of Vanuatu (see Vanuatu)  
 Republic of Vietnam (see Vietnam)  
 Republic of Zambia (see Zambia)  
 Republic of Zimbabwe (see Zimbabwe)  
 República Argentina (see Argentina)  
 República da Guiné-Bissau (see Guinea-Bissau)  
 República de Bolivia (see Bolivia)  
 República de Cabo Verde (see Cape Verde)  
 República de Chile (see Chile)  
 República de Colombia (see Colombia)  
 República de Costa Rica (see Costa Rica)  
 República de Cuba (see Cuba)  
 República de El Salvador (see El Salvador)  
 República de Guatemala (see Guatemala (country))  
 República de Guinea Ecuatorial (see Equatorial Guinea)  
 República de Honduras (see Honduras)  
 República de Moçambique (see Mozambique)  
 República de Nicaragua (see Nicaragua)  
 República de Panamá (see Panama)  
 República de Venezuela (see Venezuela)  
 República del Ecuador (see Ecuador)  
 República del Paraguay (see Paraguay)  
 República del Perú (see Peru)  
 República Democrática de São Tomé e Príncipe (see São Tomé e Príncipe)  
 República Dominicana (see Dominican Republic)  
 República Federativa do Brasil (see Brazil)  
 República Moldovenească (see Moldova)  
 República Oriental del Uruguay (see Uruguay)  
 República Popular de Angola 1: 274, 277  
 República Portuguesa (see Portugal)  
 Republican Party (Rwanda) 1: 229  
 Republican Party (Spain) 4: 94  
 Republic in Prvy (U.S.) 2: 42, 43  
 Republiek van Suriname (see Suriname (country))  
 Republik Indonesia (see Indonesia)  
 Republik Österreich (see Austria)  
 Republik Singapura (see Singapore)  
 Republika Bulgariya (see Bulgaria)  
 Republika Hrvatska (see Croatia)  
 Republika Makedonija (see Macedonia)  
 Republika ng Pilipinas (see Philippines)  
 Republika Slovenija (see Slovenia)  
 Republika y'u Burundi (see Burundi)  
 Republika y'u Rwanda (see Rwanda)  
 Republiken i Finland (see Finland)  
 République Centrafricaine (see Central African Republic)  
 République de Côte d'Ivoire (see Ivory Coast)  
 République de Djibouti (see Djibouti (country))  
 République de Guinée (see Guinea)  
 République Démocratique de Madagascar (see Madagascar)  
 République des Seychelles (see Seychelles)  
 République d'Haïti (see Haiti)  
 République du Bénin (see Benin)  
 République du Burundi (see Burundi)  
 République du Cameroun (see Cameroon)  
 République du Mali (see Mali)  
 République du Niger (see Niger)  
 République du Sénégal (see Senegal)  
 République du Tchad (see Chad)  
 République du Zaïre (see Zaïre)  
 République Fédérale Islamique des Comores (see Comoros)  
 République Française (see France)  
 République Gabonaise (see Gabon)  
 République Rwandaise (see Rwanda)  
 République Togolaise (see Togo)  
 Resende, Garcia de 4: 87  
 Resya 4: 251  
 Respublikai Tojikistan (see Tajikistan)  
 Resurrection, Church of the 4: 314  
 Retalhuleu 2: 94  
 Reuchlin, Johannes 4: 186  
 Reumas, François 1: 222  
 Reunion Act of 1840 (Great Britain) 2: 23  
 Reunion Island 1: 273, 288, 289, 335, 336  
 Reval 4: 127 (see also Tallinn)  
 Reventazon River 2: 88  
 Revillagigedo Islands 2: 99  
 Revolutionary Committee for Union and Action (CRLA) [Algeria] 1: 15  
 Revolutionary Movement for Development (Rwanda) 1: 229  
 Revolutionary Socialist Labor Party (The Gambia) 1: 155  
 Rewa 5: 18  
 Revskavik 4: 4, 131, 132, 145, 146  
 Rcvnosa 2: 10  
 Raza Shah Pahlavi 3: 32, 35, 36  
 Reza 3: 127  
 Rheanian Alps 4: 18, 173  
 Rhapta 3: 347  
 Rhatikon Mountains 4: 173  
 Rhinacs 4: 69  
 Rhineland Pfalz (Rhineland Palatinate) 4: 182  
 Rhine Confederation of 4: 186, 188  
 Rhine River 4: 2, 5, 184, 188, 189, 201, 205, 206  
 Rhineland 4: 6  
 Rhode Island 2: 31, 40  
 Rhodes 4: 14, 16, 17  
 Rhodes Cecil 1: 274, 304, 306, 308  
 Rhodessa 1: 274  
 Rhodessa, Northern 1: 304, 308 (see also Zambia)  
 Rhodessa, Southern 1: 304, 308 (see also Zimbabwe)  
 Rhone River 4: 65, 201  
 Rhone, Alps 4: 66  
 Riau 3: 302  
 Ribbentrop, Molotov agreements 4: 127, 135  
 Ribonao Preto 2: 193  
 Riccardo, Riccardo 2: 301  
 Ricci, Paolo 4: 306  
 Richard I (the Lion Hearted) king of England 3: 26  
 Richard's Bay 1: 299  
 Richardson, Henry Handel (Ethel Florence Lindesay Robertson) 5: 16  
 Richardson, John 2: 22  
 Richardson, Samuel 4: 78  
 Richmond (see Staten Island)  
 Rico, Cerro 2: 264  
 Rida, Ali ar 3: 34  
 Rif Mountains 1: 26, 27  
 Rifa'a 3: 23  
 Rifat Mosque 1: 36  
 Rifstangi 4: 131  
 Rift Valley 1: 2, 105, 207, 208, 223, 224, 226, 228, 233, 237, 241, 247, 248, 286, 291, 3: 29  
 Riga 4: 4, 134, 146  
 Rijeka 4: 242, 243  
 Rijswijk 4: 191  
 Rila Mountains 4: 240  
 Rilke, Rainer Maria 4: 176  
 Rimatara Island 5: 40  
 Rinaldi, Antonio 4: 314  
 Ring of Fire 2: 1, 4: 313  
 Rio Bravo del Norte (see Rio Grande)  
 Rio Chico 2: 292  
 Rio Cobre 2: 157  
 Rio Colorado (Argentina) 2: 292  
 Rio de Janeiro (city) 2: 5, 83, 189, 191, 192, 193, 198, 211, 212  
 Rio de Janeiro (state) 2: 191, 196, 197  
 Rio de la Plata 2: 2, 4, 84, 189, 292, 309, 310  
 Rio de la Plata, United Provinces of the 2: 298  
 Rio de la Plata, Viceroyalty of 2: 297, 304, 308, 310  
 Rio de Oro 1: 337  
 Rio Dulce 2: 93  
 Rio Escondido 2: 108  
 Rio Estero Real 2: 108  
 Rio Gascón 2: 96  
 Rio Grande (Mexico) 2: 100  
 Rio Grande (Panama) 2: 112  
 Rio Grande (U.S.) 2: 26, 77, 28, 99  
 Rio Grande de Matagalpa 2: 108  
 Rio Grande de Santiago 2: 100  
 Rio Grande de Toroles 2: 88  
 Rio Grande del Sur 2: 108  
 Rio Grande del Norte 2: 191  
 Rio Grande del Sur 2: 189, 190, 191, 193, 195, 196  
 Rio Hondo 2: 86  
 Rio Humaya 2: 96  
 Rio Iguaçu 2: 309  
 Rio Jandique 2: 96  
 Rio La Paz 2: 238  
 Rio Magdalena 2: 2, 248  
 Rio Maximo 2: 147  
 Rio Mimbo 2: 157  
 Rio Motagua 2: 93  
 Rio Muni 1: 221  
 Rio Muni territory 1: 222  
 Rio Negro (department, Argentina) 2: 295, 296  
 Rio Negro (department, Uruguay) 2: 306  
 Rio Negro (Nicaragua) 2: 108  
 Rio Negro (Uruguay) 2: 305  
 Rio Negro (Venezuela) 2: 205, 212  
 Rio Putana 2: 2, 149, 291, 301, 303, 309  
 Rio Pinturas 2: 309, 310  
 Rio Prinzapolka 2: 108  
 Rio Salado 2: 291  
 Rio Salado del Norte 2: 292  
 Rio San Carlos 2: 88  
 Rio San Francisco 2: 189  
 Rio San Juan (Costa Rica) 2: 88  
 Rio San Juan (department) 2: 109  
 Rio San Juan (Nicaragua) 2: 108, 110  
 Rio Saistun 2: 86, 93  
 Rio Solimões 2: 212  
 Rio Toluca 2: 90  
 Rio Yuna 2: 153  
 Rioja, La (Spain) 4: 90  
 Risavalda 2: 250  
 Rishon le Zion 3: 42  
 Risorgimento 4: 13, 30, 204  
 Rivadavia, Bernardino 2: 297  
 Rivas 2: 109  
 River, Cess territory (Liberia) 1: 166  
 Rivera 2: 306  
 Rivera, Diego 2: 107, 116  
 Rivera, José Faustino 2: 251  
 Rivers (Nigeria) 1: 169  
 Riviere des Prairies 2: 17  
 Riviere Noire, Piton de la 1: 289  
 Riyadh 3: 6, 17, 18, 20, 71, 64  
 Rizal, José 3: 299  
 Rkiz, Lake 1: 69  
 Road Bay 2: 335  
 Road Town 2: 337  
 Roat Kampuchea (see Cambodia)  
 Robert, Shaaban 1: 236  
 Roberts, Tom 5: 16  
 Robertson, Ethel Florence Lindesay (Henry Handel Richardson) 5: 16  
 Robertspori (Liberia) 1: 166  
 Robleto, Hernan 2: 111  
 Robson, Mount 2: 13, 46  
 Roca, Cipe 4: 58  
 Rocha 2: 306  
 Rochefort 4: 60  
 Rocky Mountains 2: 2, 3, 4, 13, 14, 15, 21, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 36, 37, 45, 46, 115  
 Rodney, George Bridges 2: 152  
 Rodó, José Enrique 2: 308  
 Rodopi massif 4: 14, 238, 240, 257  
 Rodopi River 4: 240  
 Rodrigues Island 1: 289  
 Rodríguez, Andrés 2: 304  
 Rodríguez, Jorge Alessandri 2: 247  
 Rodríguez, Manuel Díaz 2: 210  
 Rodríguez, Alcides Hugo 2: 304  
 Rodríguez de Francia, José Caspar 2: 304  
 Rogaland 4: 138  
 Roger the Norman 4: 28  
 Roggeveen, Jacob 5: 33, 39  
 Roh, Tae Woon 3: 190  
 Rokel River 1: 177  
 Roldow, Jannic 2: 256  
 Romagna 4: 20  
 Roman Catholic Church (see Catholicism)  
 Roman Empire 3: 21, 53, 59, 63, 4: 7, 8, 12, 24, 25, 90, 204, 236, 248, 258, 287  
 Roman Republic 4: 13, 24  
 Roman Singidunum 4: 258  
 Romania 4: 1, 6, 249, 252, 257, 258, 5: 97  
 Romanian Communist Party 4: 252  
 Romanian language 4: 252, 257  
 Romanian people 4: 238, 250, 295  
 Romanian Plan 4: 249  
 Romano, Cayo 2: 147  
 Romano, Luca 3: 182  
 Romanov dynasty 4: 303  
 Romans 1: 15, 3: 26, 49, 48, 55, 4: 28, 72, 76, 83, 85, 185, 190, 232, 235, 241, 252, 286, 290  
 Romansch language 4: 202  
 Romantic movement 2: 22  
 Rome 4: 4, 8, 13, 19, 20, 21, 23, 24, 24, 25, 32, 93  
 Rome, Treaty of 4: 182, 203  
 Romulus 4: 24  
 Romulus Augustulus 4: 25  
 Rondam, National Park 4: 138  
 Rondônia 2: 191, 211  
 Ronne 4: 125  
 Roosevelt, Franklin Delano 2: 8, 34, 43  
 Roosevelt, Theodore 2: 8, 43, 46  
 Roraima 2: 191  
 Roraima, Mount 2: 199, 206  
 Rosa, Monte 4: 18, 201  
 Rosario 2: 294, 297  
 Rosas, Juan Manuel de 2: 298  
 Roscau 2: 151, 152  
 Rosettes Dam, Fr 1: 77  
 Roses, War of the 4: 77  
 Ross, James Clark 5: 94  
 Ross, John 5: 89  
 Ross Island 5: 92, 94, 95, 96, 100  
 Ross Platform (Ross Ice Shelf) 5: 95  
 Ross Sea 5: 91, 94, 96  
 Rossi, Carlo 4: 314  
 Rossiyskaya Federatsiya (see Russia)  
 Rossini, Gioacchino 4: 10, 26  
 Rostemid dynasty 1: 7  
 Rostislav 4: 179  
 Rostock 4: 181  
 Rostov 4: 299, 300, 303  
 Roth, Joseph 4: 286, 297  
 Rotonda, Monte 4: 64  
 Rotunda 5: 24  
 Rotterdam 4: 190  
 Rotuma 5: 18  
 Roubaix 4: 66, 67  
 Rouen 4: 69

- Rouba 1: 14  
 Rousseau, Ina 1: 300  
 Rousseau, Jean Jacques 4: 9  
 Rovno 4: 309  
 Roy, Gabrielle 2: 23  
 Roy, Ram Moan 3: 104  
 Royal Mosque (Islahan) 3: 34  
 Royal Spanish Academy 4: 94  
 Rozwi people 1: 308  
 Ruaha National Park 1: 234  
 Ruaha River, Great 1: 233  
 Ruahine Range 5: 24  
 Ruanda (*see* Rwanda)  
 Ruanda Urundi territory 1: 209  
 Rub al Khali Desert 3: 17, 18, 26, 61, 63  
 Rubuga Cathedral of 1: 248  
 Rubenstein, J. M. 2: 38  
 Rublev, Andrei 4: 314  
 Rudnik Mountain 4: 215  
 Rudolf II, Holy Roman emperor 4: 176  
 Rulique 1: 174, 175  
 Ruhengeri 1: 228  
 Ruhr Basin 4: 184  
 Ruhr Valley 4: 5, 6, 206  
 Ruhuhu River 1: 233  
 Ruhunu National Park 3: 128  
 Ruvo, Pico 1: 337  
 Rukwa 1: 235  
 Rumelia 4: 241  
 Rundu 1: 294  
 Runeberg, Johan Ludvig 4: 130  
 Rungwa Game Reserve 1: 234  
 Rungwe massif 1: 233  
 Rurik dynasty 4: 303  
 Runutu Island 5: 40  
 Rus 4: 313  
 Rusali, al 3: 40  
 Rusc 4: 239, 241  
 Rushmore, Mount 2: 46  
 Russia 2: 1, 12, 37, 3: 167, 186, 4: 3, 5, 9, 10, 17, 130, 289, 296, 305, 308, 313, 314, 5: 87 (*see also* Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (U.S.S.R.))  
 Russian Arctic 5: 57, 88  
 Russian Empire 4: 4  
 Russian Federation 4: 313  
 Russian Hill 2: 17  
 Russian Orthodox Church 4: 126, 303, 314 (*see also* Eastern Orthodoxy)  
 Russian people 3: 5, 9, 15, 16, 4: 126, 130, 134, 135, 250, 284, 288, 293, 295, 296, 297, 306, 307, 309, 312, 5: 87, 89  
 Russian Soviet Federated Socialist Republic 4: 297, 304 (*see also* Russian Federation)  
 Russo-Siberian continental shelf 5: 85  
 Rustaveli, Shota 4: 290  
 Rustavi 4: 290  
 Rutana 1: 209  
 Rutanzige Lake 1: 105, 237  
 Ruthenia 4: 197  
 Ruvubu River 1: 208  
 Ruvuma 1: 233  
 Ruvuma River 1: 291  
 Ruwenzori Mountain 1: 207, 237, 238, 240, 243, 5: 173  
 Ruwenzori National Park 1: 238  
 Ruvigi 1: 209  
 Ruzizi River 1: 208, 228, 248  
 Rwanda 1: 5, 7, 207, 210, 228, 229, 248  
 Ryazan 4: 299  
 Ryswick, Treaty of 2: 155, 162  
 Rynkyu Islands 3: 190, 296  
 Rzeszow 4: 194  
 Sabah 3: 295, 307, 308  
 Sabah family, al 3: 45  
 Sabah Jaber al Ahmed al 3: 46  
 Sabana Islands 2: 146  
 Sabaragamuwa 3: 129  
 Saberi Lake 3: 13  
 Sabha 1: 22, 23  
 Sabines 4: 20, 24  
 Sabriyah, as 3: 45  
 Sabratal 1: 24  
 Sacatepequez 2: 94  
 Sacha 2: 255  
 Sachsen (Saxony) 4: 182  
 Sachsen-Anhalt 4: 182  
 Sacramento River 2: 26  
 Sacramento Valley 2: 26, 48  
 Sadah 3: 61  
 Sadat, Anwar al 1: 21  
 Sadi dynasty 1: 30  
 Sado River 4: 85  
 Salavid Empire 3: 16, 34  
 Salavid people 3: 16, 36, 4: 287  
 Saled Koh Mountains 3: 124  
 Salfanyah 3: 20  
 Sali 1: 28, 29  
 Salid Rud River 3: 31  
 Sago 3: 192  
 Sagame 3: 247, 268  
 Sagarnatha 3: 122  
 Sagrada Familia, Church of the 4: 32  
 Sahand Mountain 3: 34  
 Sahara Desert 1: 1, 2, 3, 4, 10, 11, 12, 14, 17, 19, 21, 22, 26, 27, 31, 32, 33, 35, 62, 63, 65, 66, 67, 69, 70, 71, 72, 75, 79, 80, 113  
 Saharan Atlas 1: 11 (*see also* Atlas Mountains)  
 Sahel region 1: 3, 31, 33, 61, 85, 144, 147, 148, 169, 170, 182, 211  
 Saibou, Ali 1: 74  
 Said, Joseph Ibrahim 1: 65  
 Said, Qabus ibn 3: 50  
 Said, Sidi Boni 1: 33  
 Said II, sultan of Muscat 1: 236  
 Saïda 1: 13  
 Sait dynasty 1: 13  
 Sargo Yormichi 3: 208  
 Saigon (*see* Ho Chi Minh City)  
 Satiendra dynasty 3: 304  
 Sattmar Lake 4: 128  
 St. Andrew, St. David 2: 167  
 St. Andrew (Jamaica) 2: 157  
 St. Andrew, Church of (Kiev) 4: 313  
 St. Ann (Jamaica) 2: 157  
 St. Ann's Bay 2: 157  
 Saint-Bathelémy Island 2: 338  
 St. Basil, Church of 4: 303  
 St. Benedict of Norcia 4: 25  
 St. Brandon (Cargados Carapous Islands) 1: 789  
 St. Catherine (Jamaica) 2: 157  
 St. Catherine, Mount 2: 159  
 St. Christopher (St. Kitts) 2: 164  
 St. Croix Island 2: 340  
 St. Cyril 4: 179, 232, 236, 303  
 Saint Denis 4: 69  
 St. Elias Mountains 2: 26  
 St. Elizabeth (Jamaica) 2: 157  
 Saint Eustace 4: 66, 67  
 St. Eustatius 2: 141  
 St. Floris National Park 1: 214  
 St. Gallen Abbey of 4: 204  
 St. George (Bermuda) 2: 336  
 St. George (Trinidad and Tobago) 2: 167  
 St. George's (Grenada) 2: 160  
 St. Helena Island 1: 336  
 St. Helens, Mount 5: 135  
 St. Helier 4: 72  
 St. Henry, archbishop of Uppsala 4: 130  
 St. James (Jamaica) 2: 157  
 St. James Anglican Church 2: 17  
 St. Joan of Arc 4: 69  
 St. John (Virgin Islands) 2: 340  
 St. John of Rila 4: 241  
 St. John River (Liberia) 1: 165  
 St. John's (Antigua and Barbuda) 2: 142  
 St. John's (Canada) 2: 13  
 St. Joseph's Oratory 2: 18  
 St. Kitts and Nevis 2: 4, 141, 164  
 St. Laurent du Maroni 2: 211, 338  
 St. Lawrence, Gulf of 2: 13  
 St. Lawrence Island 2: 46  
 St. Lawrence region 2: 14, 16, 26  
 St. Lawrence River 2: 2, 13, 17, 22, 26, 46, 47, 120  
 St. Lawrence Seaway 2: 120  
 Saint Louis (Senegal) 1: 173, 174, 175, 176  
 St. Louis (U.S.) 2: 33, 38, 39, 40  
 St. Lucia 2: 4, 141, 165  
 St. Martin (St. Maarten) Island 2: 338  
 St. Mary's Island 1: 155  
 St. Methodius 4: 179, 198, 232, 236, 303  
 St. Michael, Church of (Vihims) 4: 136  
 St. Michael Catholic Cathedral (Toronto) 2: 17  
 St. Patrick 2: 167, 4: 81  
 Saint Riquis 4: 69  
 St. Paul River (Iberia) 1: 165, 166  
 St. Peter, Patrimony of 4: 25  
 St. Peter's Basilica (Vatican City) 4: 13, 31, 32  
 St. Peter's Square (Vatican City) 4: 13  
 St. Petersburg 4: 299, 300, 302, 303, 304, 313, 314  
 St. Petersburg, Treaty of 4: 196  
 St. Pierre and Miquelon 2: 337, 338, 339  
 Saint Pierre Mountain 5: 135  
 St. Stephen, Cathedral of (Zagreb) 4: 258  
 St. Sulpice, seminary 2: 18  
 St. Thibault, saint 1: 94, 4: 95  
 St. Thomas (Jamaica) 2: 157  
 St. Thomas (Virgin Islands) 2: 340  
 St. Vincent, Gulf of 5: 7  
 St. Vincent and the Grenadines 2: 4, 141, 152, 166  
 Sainte-Chapelle 4: 67  
 Saints Peter and Paul, Cathedral of (Manamabo) 2: 203  
 Saints Peter and Paul, Fortress of (St. Petersburg) 4: 314  
 Saipan 5: 40  
 Saitama 3: 197  
 Sajama, Mount 2: 238  
 Sakalava people 1: 285, 310  
 Sakartvelos Respublika (*see* Georgia (Russian state))  
 Sakarya River 3: 57  
 Sakhalin Island 3: 190, 200, 4: 299, 300, 302  
 Sal Island 1: 149, 150  
 Sala 4: 143  
 Sala y Gomez Island 5: 39  
 Salado River 2: 100  
 Salah ad-Din 3: 38  
 Salaj 4: 250  
 Salalah 3: 49, 50  
 Salama River 2: 93  
 Salamat 1: 63  
 Salai de Antofalla depression 2: 290  
 Salai de Uyuni 2: 263  
 Salazar, Antonio de Oliveira 4: 87  
 Salazar, Herrera, Carlos 2: 89  
 Salazar regime 1: 277, 293, 337  
 Salcedo 2: 154  
 Sale 1: 28  
 Salek, Monstapha Ould Mohamed 1: 71  
 Salento 4: 19  
 Salimiyah, as 3: 45  
 Salina Gualicho 2: 292  
 Salinas de Gortari, Carlos 2: 107  
 Salisbury (Zimbabwe) 1: 306, 308  
 Sallust 4: 8  
 Salmydessus 3: 343  
 Salonga National Park 1: 242  
 Saloum Delta National Park 1: 174  
 Saloum River 1: 173, 175  
 Salpausselkä Mountains 4: 127, 128  
 Salt (Jordan) 3: 30  
 Salt Cay 2: 337  
 Salt Desert 3: 57  
 Salt Lake City 2: 27, 33  
 Salt Plain 1: 108, 117  
 Salt Range 3: 124  
 Salta 2: 291, 295, 296  
 Sallanat Oman (*see* Oman)  
 Sallari 2: 154  
 Saltillo 2: 104, 116  
 Salto 2: 305, 307  
 Salton Sea 2: 25  
 Saltsjön Lake 4: 146  
 Salvador (Bahia) 2: 191, 192, 193, 194, 195, 196, 198, 212  
 Salvador, Gulf of 2: 217  
 Salvioni, Giovanni 1: 7  
 Salvo, Palacio (Montevideo) 2: 310  
 Salween Basin 3: 257  
 Salween people 3: 245  
 Salween River 3: 170  
 Salzach River 4: 173  
 Salzburg 4: 173, 175, 180, 181  
 Sam, Gilbert A. 1: 159  
 Samana 2: 154  
 Samana Bay 2: 153  
 Samana Peninsula 2: 153, 155  
 Samangan 3: 14  
 Samanid dynasty 3: 36, 4: 312, 314  
 Samara 4: 299, 300  
 Samaria 3: 43  
 Samarkand 3: 33, 345, 4: 312, 314  
 Samarra 3: 37  
 Samarian people 3: 39  
 Samaritan people 4: 303, 309  
 Samaritan plain 4: 3  
 Samba Plateau 1: 247  
 Sambo 2: 154  
 Sambrin Game Reserve 1: 221  
 Samchok 3: 189  
 Sami language 4: 128, 135  
 Samut War 4: 24  
 Samum 4: 24  
 Samoan Islands 5: 3, 4, 32, 33, 38, 40, 42  
 Samoan people 5: 33  
 Samogitian people 4: 136  
 Samos 4: 16  
 Samos 3: 301  
 Samoyed people 5: 57, 85  
 Samsum 3: 59  
 Samuel, king of the Bulgars 4: 241  
 San Agustín culture 2: 237  
 San Ambrosio Islands 2: 242  
 San Andreas Fault 2: 26, 5: 172  
 San Andres y Providencia 2: 250  
 San Antonio 2: 33  
 San Carlos (university, Guatemala) 2: 94  
 San Cristobal (Dominican Republic) 2: 154  
 San Cristobal Island (Solomon Islands) 5: 31  
 San Diego 2: 33, 38  
 San Felix Islands 2: 242  
 San Fernando 2: 167  
 San Fernando de Apure 2: 205  
 San Francisco (U.S.) 2: 5, 26, 27, 33, 39, 40, 47  
 San Francisco, Church of (Antigua) 2: 116  
 San Francisco Bay 2: 26, 36, 47  
 San Francisco Mountains 2: 290  
 San Giovanni in Laterano, Basilica of 4: 13  
 San Isidro (Dominican Republic) 2: 155  
 San Isidro (Venezuela) 2: 208  
 San Joaquin Valley 2: 26  
 San Jose (Costa Rica) 2: 87, 88, 89, 116  
 San Jose (Guatemala) 2: 95  
 San Jose (Uruguay) 2: 306  
 San José Basin 2: 89  
 San José (province, Costa Rica) 2: 88  
 San Juan (Argentina) 2: 295, 296  
 San Juan (Dominican Republic) 2: 154  
 San Juan (Peru) 2: 260  
 San Juan (Puerto Rico) 2: 340  
 San Juan del Sur 2: 110  
 San Juanito, Sierra de 2: 96  
 San Lorenzo Mountain 2: 291  
 San Lucas, Cabo 2: 115  
 San Luis 2: 295  
 San Luis Potosí 2: 102  
 San Marcos 2: 94  
 San Marcos University 2: 262  
 San Marino (city) 4: 4, 30  
 San Marino (country) 4: 4, 12, 30, 32  
 San Martín 2: 258  
 San Martín, José de 2: 84, 246, 261  
 San Miguel (city) 2: 90, 91  
 San Miguel (department) 2: 91  
 San Miguel, Gulf of 2: 112  
 San Miguel Mountains 2: 90  
 San Miguelito 2: 112  
 San Nicolas 2: 260  
 San Paolo fuori le Mura, Basilica of 4: 13  
 San Pedro 1: 153, 2: 302  
 San Pedro de Macoris 2: 154, 155  
 San Pedro Martín, Sierra de 2: 99  
 San Pedro River 2: 147  
 San Pedro Sul 2: 97, 98  
 San Rafael, Cerro de 2: 300  
 San Salvador (city) 2: 90, 91, 92, 116  
 San Salvador (department) 2: 91  
 San Salvador (volcano) 2: 90  
 San Salvador Island 2: 144  
 San Sebastian 4: 92  
 San Vicente 2: 91, 246  
 San Vicente Mountains 2: 90  
 San Villar, José 2: 304  
 San 3: 6, 60, 61  
 Sanaig 1: 115  
 Sanga River 1: 210, 211, 212, 214  
 Sanchez, Cerrito Luis 2: 262  
 Sanchez, Ramirez 2: 154  
 Sanchung 3: 207  
 Sanchi Spiritus 2: 148  
 Sancy, Puy de 4: 64  
 Sankalan 3: 307, 308  
 Sandawe people 1: 231  
 Sandino, Augusto Cesar 2: 111  
 Sankar Islands, South 5: 91  
 Sankaradyi 1: 162  
 Sangay region 2: 253  
 Sangha 1: 215, 217  
 Sangha River 1: 215, 217  
 Sanghe Islands 3: 300  
 Sangkum Reacht Niyum [Popular Socialist Community] (Cambodia) 3: 253  
 Sangre de Cristo Mountains 2: 25  
 Sanguine 1: 147  
 Sangum River 1: 165  
 Sanguinetti, Julio Maria 2: 308  
 Sanjaya kingdom 3: 304  
 Sankara, Thomas 1: 148  
 Sankarani River 1: 151  
 Sankoshi River 3: 104  
 Sankt Gallen 4: 202  
 Sanmatenga 1: 147  
 Sanna Emilio 2: 158, 161, 162  
 Sanskrit language 3: 39, 127  
 Santa Ana (city) 2: 91  
 Santa Ana (department) 2: 91  
 Santa Anna, Antonio López de 2: 106  
 Santa Bárbara 2: 97  
 Santa Catarina 2: 191, 195, 196  
 Santa Clara 2: 148  
 Santa Cruz (Argentina) 2: 295, 296

- Santa Cruz (Bolivia) 2: 239  
 Santa Cruz (Philippines) 3: 298  
 Santa Cruz de Tenerife 1: 338  
 Santa Cruz (Madeira) 1: 337  
 Santa Cruz Islands (Solomon Islands) 5: 31  
 Santa Elena de Uareren 2: 205  
 Santa Elena Peninsula 2: 255  
 Santa Fe (Argentina) 2: 294, 295  
 Santa Isabel (Malabo) 1: 222  
 Santa Isabel Island (Solomon Islands) 5: 31  
 Santa Isabel Mount 1: 221  
 Santa Luzia Island 1: 149  
 Santa Maria de los Buenos Aires 2: 297  
 Santa Maria Galeria 4: 13  
 Santa Maria Maggiore, Basilica of 4: 13  
 Santa Maria Minor Cathedral of (Santo Domingo) 2: 170  
 Santamaria 2: 89  
 Santander 2: 250 4: 89 92  
 Santarem 2: 191  
 Santarosá Santorre di 4: 17  
 Santiago (Chile) 2: 2 242 243 244 264  
 Santiago (Dominican Republic) 2: 154 155  
 Santiago de Compostela Cathedral of (Galicia) 4: 96  
 Santiago de Cuba (city) 2: 147 148 149  
 Santiago de Cuba (province) 2: 148  
 Santiago de los Caballeros 2: 154  
 Santiago del Estero 2: 289 295  
 Santiago River 2: 253  
 Santiago Rodríguez 2: 154  
 Santiago Tlatelolco Church of (Mexico City) 2: 116  
 Santisteban Diego 2: 246  
 Santo Antão Island 1: 149  
 Santo Domingo 2: 153 155 169 170 340  
 Santo Domingo Audiencia de 2: 209  
 Santo Domingo de Guzmán 2: 151  
 Sutorini 4: 31  
 Santos José Eduardo dos 1: 277  
 Santos Zelava José 2: 92 110  
 Sio Kingdom of 1: 64  
 São Francisco Basin 2: 189  
 São Francisco Valley 2: 192 193  
 São Irenéus Church of 4: 96  
 São Luis do Maranhão 2: 192  
 São Nicolau Island 1: 149  
 São Paulo (city) 2: 5 83 189 191 192 193 194 212  
 São Paulo (state) 2: 189 191 195 196 197 198 212  
 São Paulo de Luanda 1: 276  
 São people 1: 211  
 São Roque Cape 2: 191  
 São Salvador (M'Balí) 1: 276  
 São Tiago Island 1: 149  
 São Tomé (city) 1: 5 230  
 São Tomé P.C. 1: 230  
 São Tomé e Príncipe 1: 5, 144 230 231 337  
 São Vicente Island 1: 149, 150 181 337  
 Saône River 4: 65  
 Saoura F. 1: 28  
 Sapele 1: 171  
 Sapo, Serianá de 2: 112  
 Sappho 4: 7  
 Sapporo 3: 191 192, 197  
 Sapt Kosi (river) 3: 121  
 Sara, Mount 1: 168  
 Sara Park 4: 245  
 Sara people 1: 63, 214  
 Saracens 4: 25  
 Saragossa 4: 89, 90  
 Sarajevo 4: 4, 236, 258  
 Sarakolle people 1: 70  
 Saracenen 2: 203  
 Saratov 4: 299  
 Saravan 3: 255  
 Sarawak 3: 295, 306, 307, 308
- Sardinia 4: 10, 18, 19, 20 21 22 24, 26  
 Sardinia, kingdom of 4: 10  
 Sardis 3: 343  
 Sare Poi 3: 14  
 Sarekat Islam Indonesia (Indonesian Islamic Association) 3: 305  
 Sarh 1: 62 63 64  
 Sarmatian lowlands 4: 1  
 Sarmiento Domingo Faustino 2: 298  
 Sarma 4: 142  
 Sarney, José 2: 199  
 Sarma Valley 2: 120  
 Saronic Gulf 4: 32  
 Sartizetakis, Christos 4: 17  
 Sasand dynasty 3: 36  
 Sasand Persians 3: 16  
 Saskatchewan 2: 13 15 18 19 23  
 Saskatchewan River 2: 13  
 Sassandra 1: 152  
 Sassandra River 1: 151  
 Sassine William 1: 162  
 Sathalanalati Pithathipatani Paraxón Lao (see Laos)  
 Satpura Range 3: 107 113  
 Satu Mare 4: 250  
 Sauda Muhammad Rafi 3: 116  
 Saudi Arabia 3: 6 12 17 22 28 52 63 64 5: 164  
 Saudi dynasty 3: 30  
 Sauerland 4: 184  
 Sault Sainte Marie Canals 2: 20  
 Sava 4: 258  
 Sava Alps 4: 199  
 Sava River 4: 2 236 242 244  
 Savage, Michael Joseph 5: 25  
 Savat Island 5: 32 33  
 Savannakhet 3: 254 255  
 Sava River 1: 291 305  
 Savetto Francesco 1: 176  
 Savimbi Jonas 1: 277  
 Savon 4: 23  
 Savoy 4: 172  
 Savoyard state 4: 26  
 Saw Maung 3: 250  
 Sawaba movement 1: 74  
 Sawatch Mountains 2: 25  
 Sawda Djebel as 1: 22  
 Sawlaji 1: 23  
 Sawhaj 1: 18  
 Saxons 4: 8 69 72 76 189  
 Saxony (Sachsen) 4: 182 184  
 Saxony, House of 4: 25  
 Say 1: 72 73  
 Say San 3: 250  
 Sayan 4: 302  
 Sayan Mountains 3: 202  
 Savda 3: 21 47 48  
 Saynshand 3: 204  
 Sberla 1: 34  
 Scatell Pike 4: 71  
 Scandinavia 2: 1 4: 4 5 6 7 121 122 123 125 127 133 137 146  
 Scandinavian Mountains 4: 141  
 Scandinavian people 4: 128 142  
 Scarborough 2: 167  
 Scarries River 1: 176  
 Scarlati Giuseppe Domenico 4: 9 26  
 Scenary, Mount 2: 339  
 Schaffhausen 4: 202  
 Schelde River 4: 60 188, 189  
 Schellenberg 4: 188  
 Schelling Friedrich Wilhelm Joseph von 4: 186  
 Schiele, Egon 4: 176  
 Schiller, Johann 4: 10, 186  
 Schinkel Karl Friedrich 4: 206  
 Schleswig 4: 125  
 Schleswig-Holstein 4: 182  
 Schonbrunn Palace 4: 206  
 School Pact (Belgium) 4: 63  
 Schoonebeek 4: 191  
 Schouten, Wilhelm Corneliszoon 5: 35, 40  
 Schumacher, Eugen 3: 301  
 Schweizerische Eidgenossenschaft (see Switzerland)
- Schwyz 4: 202 204  
 Sciari Achmed asc. 1: 25  
 Sciarra Colonna 4: 13  
 Scilly Islands 4: 71  
 Scotland 4: 2 8 71 72, 73 74 76 95, 96  
 Scott, Robert F. 5: 94  
 Scott, Walter 4: 78  
 Scrub Island 2: 335  
 Scudo Brasleño 2: 81  
 Scutari Lake 4: 234  
 Scythian people 4: 303 311  
 Sea of Japan 3: 167 183 185 187 191  
 Seattle 2: 27 38 40  
 Sebou River 1: 26  
 Secession war of 2: 10 29 42  
 Second War of Independence (War of 1812) 2: 41  
 Second Charles Louis de 4: 304  
 Seddon Richard 5: 28  
 Sedon 3: 43  
 Sefers George 4: 17  
 Sefrou Ahmed 1: 30  
 Sefrou Mount 5: 41  
 Segou 1: 67 68  
 Segou Delta 1: 66  
 Seire Paola 1: 111  
 Seguela 1: 152  
 Selhlabathere National Park 1: 282  
 Selmonet Clarence 2: 152  
 Seine River 4: 64  
 Sekhna 1: 33  
 Sekondi Takoradi 1: 157 158  
 Sella (Latin America Economic System) 2: 84  
 Selangan 3: 307 308  
 Selague Sierra de 2: 96  
 Selchi Pikwe 1: 278 279  
 Selenga 3: 203  
 Seleng River 3: 202 204  
 Selucid dynasty 3: 55  
 Selungu 1: 67  
 Seljuk dynasty 4: 308  
 Seljuk Turks 3: 21 36 43 50 (see also Ottoman Empire Turks)  
 Selkirk Alexander 2: 242  
 Sella massif 2: 161  
 Selous reserve 1: 234  
 Senti River 4: 233  
 Sengang people 3: 307  
 Senara P.S. 1: 28  
 Sengarang 3: 302 304  
 Sengur volcano 3: 300  
 Sengien region 1: 109 111  
 Sempalatinsk 4: 295  
 Sempalatinsk fortifications 4: 293  
 Sennit people 1: 4 9 17 105 109 118 3: 18 19 36 43 61  
 Sennar 3: 33  
 Sena 1: 292  
 Sena dynasty 3: 193  
 Sendero Luminoso 2: 259  
 Sene River 1: 156  
 Seneca 4: 93  
 Senegal 1: 5 61 68 69 144 173 176 181 182 335  
 Senegal region 1: 155  
 Senegal River 1: 61 66 67 69 144 160 173 174 175 176  
 Senegalese people 1: 155  
 Senegambia 1: 68 155  
 Senghon, Leopold 1: 8 174 176  
 Sennar 1: 77 78  
 Seno 1: 147  
 Senoi people 3: 307  
 Senuto people 1: 66 147 152 153  
 Senussat kingdom 1: 23  
 Senul 3: 6, 186 187 188 189 190 210  
 Seoul plan 3: 187  
 Sepik 5: 29  
 Sepoy Mutiny 3: 10, 117 123  
 Sept-Îles/Pointe Noire 2: 120  
 Sequoia National Park 2: 28  
 Serah Plateau 3: 60, 61  
 Serahuli people 1: 154
- Serb people 4: 176 200, 232 233 236 243 245 248 250 258  
 Serbia 4: 232, 243 245, 246 247 257 258  
 Serbia Greater 4: 246  
 Serbs Croats and Slovenes Kingdom of the 4: 200 236 244 247 248  
 Serébou 1: 153  
 Serékunda 1: 155  
 Serengeti National Park 1: 234  
 Seret people 1: 174  
 Sergei Kirov Islands 5: 87  
 Sergepe 2: 191  
 Serri people 2: 115  
 Seta 3: 294 295  
 Setibala 1: 67  
 Setowa 1: 278  
 Setra Setranna (see substantive word)  
 Setraville 4: 30  
 Setrere P.C. 4: 59  
 Setua 5: 18  
 Seti 3: 122  
 Setil 1: 13  
 Settat 1: 28  
 Setubal 4: 85 96  
 Setun Lake 4: 285  
 Sevastopol 4: 310  
 Seven States of the Hansa 1: 172 182  
 Seven Years War 2: 9 22 41 4: 9 186  
 Severn River 4: 72  
 Severnaya Osetiya 4: 299  
 Severnaya Zemlya Islands 5: 85 86 87 88 90  
 Sevroucksky 4: 178  
 Sevrou Kazakhstan 4: 292  
 Seville 4: 89 90  
 Sevres Treaty of 4: 286  
 Sewa River 1: 177  
 Seychelles 1: 5 231 232 247 248  
 Shivan River 3: 57  
 Seymour Alan 5: 17  
 Seymour Island 2: 263  
 Sfax 1: 32 33 34  
 Shintu Gheorghe Island 4: 257  
 Storza Bona 4: 196  
 Storza Ludovico (I Moro) 4: 26  
 Shami 3: 172  
 Shaba 1: 243 244 245  
 Shaba Highlands 1: 240 241  
 Shackleton Ernest 5: 94  
 Shagari Shetu 1: 172  
 Shakespeare William 4: 77  
 Shamun Yitzhak 3: 44  
 Shan 3: 247 248  
 Shan people 3: 247 249 250  
 Shan Plateau 3: 246 267  
 Shandong 3: 172 175 176  
 Shang dynasty 3: 176 177  
 Shangan River 1: 305  
 Shanghai 3: 171 172 174 175 176 210 211  
 Shankar Ramsevak 2: 204  
 Shannon 4: 81  
 Shannon River 4: 79 80  
 Shamsi 3: 172 175  
 Sharon plain 3: 42  
 Shatqiya (Egypt) 1: 18  
 Sharqiyah (Oman) 3: 50  
 Shastri Jal Bahadur 3: 119  
 Shati 1: 23  
 Shatt al Arab River 3: 3 37 38 44  
 Shayband dynasty 4: 312  
 Shayib el Banat, Djebel 1: 17  
 Shebelle Middle 1: 115  
 Shebshi Mountains 1: 169  
 Sheffield 4: 73  
 Shirk I uttullah Mosque 3: 36  
 Shelley, Percy Bysshe 4: 78  
 Shenyang 3: 172  
 Shepherd (Vanuatu) 5: 37  
 Shetland Islands 4: 57, 71 72  
 Shevchenko, Taras 4: 311  
 Shi Huangdi 3: 177 178, 209  
 Shihwah 3: 61  
 Shiga 3: 192  
 Shigar River 3: 124
- Shiite Muslims 3: 12, 14 16, 32 34 36 37, 47 48, 55 61 62 64 66 4: 287  
 Shikoku 3: 190 193 196  
 Shikha River 3: 171, 202  
 Shiman 3: 192  
 Shinkolobwe 1: 244  
 Shintoism 3: 198  
 Shinyanga 1: 235  
 Shira'awi Atoll 3: 51  
 Shiraz 3: 32 33 35  
 Shire Highlands 1: 287  
 Shire River 1: 287  
 Shiselweni 1: 301  
 Shuwah Majah bin 3: 50  
 Shizuoka 3: 192  
 Shkodër 4: 234 235  
 Shkumbin River 4: 233  
 Shoa 1: 109 110  
 Shoa region 1: 111  
 Shoguns 3: 193 198 200  
 Shona people 1: 308  
 Shone Temple 3: 116  
 Showa Fia 3: 201  
 Shreis Sidi 1: 19  
 SHS (Serbo Croat Slovene kingdom) (see Serbs Croats and Slovenes Kingdom of the)  
 Shunba 3: 45  
 Shubra al Khayma 1: 18  
 Shumen 4: 239  
 Shushulindi 2: 255  
 Shwe Dagon (Golden Pagoda) 3: 248 267  
 Shwebo 3: 248  
 Shyok River 3: 124  
 Si Racha 3: 260  
 Siad Barre Mohamed 1: 115 116  
 Siam (see Thailand)  
 Siamese people 3: 258  
 Siannai 4: 136  
 Sibirsk Jan 4: 130  
 Sibirnik 4: 243  
 Siberia 2: 6 21 3: 2 3 7 9 168 351 4: 1 283 284 292 300 301 302 313 314  
 Sibyan Arctic 5: 86 87 88 89 90  
 Siberian Sea Eastern 5: 85 88  
 Sibru 4: 250  
 Sibru 3: 307 308  
 Sicani people 4: 24  
 Sichuan 3: 172 175 351  
 Sichuan Basin 3: 170  
 Sichuan Vespers 4: 26  
 Sicily 4: 8 18 19 20 21 22 24 25 26 32  
 Siculi people 4: 20  
 Sidamo 1: 109 110  
 Sidi Alym Dan 1: 172  
 Sidi Bel Abbas 1: 13  
 Sidon (see Sayda)  
 Sidi As 1: 24  
 Sidra Gulf of 1: 21 23  
 Siedlec 4: 194  
 Siegfried Count of Ardennes 4: 83  
 Sierra (see substantive word except as listed below)  
 Sierra (Fouador) 2: 254  
 Sierra de San Pedro Martín National Park 2: 101  
 Sierra Leone 1: 5 143 144 167 176 178 182, 336  
 Sierra Mendez Justo 2: 106  
 Siever Raymond 5: 126 129  
 Sighisoara 4: 251  
 Sigismund III Vasa, king of Poland 4: 206  
 Sigüenza y Góngora Carlos de 2: 106  
 Sigurjónsson, Johann 4: 133  
 Sikkim 1: 216, 279  
 Sikasso 1: 67  
 Sikkim 3: 14 100 127 133  
 Sikkote Alm 4: 300 302  
 Sikkote Alm Mountains 4: 297  
 Sikkim 3: 109  
 Silesia 4: 6 177  
 Silvan Valley 2: 38  
 Silguri 3: 100  
 Silisli, Mount 5: 32



- Silistra 4: 239  
 Silk Route 3: 9, 12, 179, 205, 248, 249  
 Silla kingdom 3: 185  
 Silver Hill 2: 336  
 Silvretta Mountains 4: 173  
 Silyanah 1: 33  
 Simeon the Great 4: 241  
 Simferopol 4: 310  
 Simpson's Bay 2: 339  
 Sinai, Mount 2: 159  
 Sinai Peninsula 1: 16, 17, 19, 35, 3: 340  
 Sinaloa 2: 102  
 Sinda, Martial 1: 218  
 Sindh 3: 114, 124, 125  
 Sine-Saloum 1: 175, 182  
 Singapore 3: 6, 293, 310-312, 313, 314  
 Singapore Strait 3: 310  
 Singida 1: 235  
 Sinhalese 3: 120, 128, 129, 130  
 Simanka Mimia (nature preserve) 1: 62  
 Simkor 1: 166  
 Sinn Féin 4: 82  
 Sino River 1: 165  
 Sino-Siamese people 3: 258  
 Sino-Tibetan languages 3: 100, 5: 151  
 Sino-Tibetan people 3: 245  
 Sinoe 1: 166  
 Sironia 1: 306  
 Sint Eustatius 2: 339  
 Sint Maarten (St. Martin) 2: 339  
 Sinituju 3: 183, 184, 185  
 Sioux people 2: 11, 29, 40, 42, 46  
 Siqueiros, David Alfaro 2: 107  
 Siret River 4: 249  
 Sissili 1: 147  
 Sistan e Baluchistan 3: 33  
 Sistema Pembético 4: 89  
 Sistine Chapel 4: 13  
 Sithonia 4: 14  
 Sitah 3: 23  
 Sittang River 3: 246, 248, 249  
 Sittwe 3: 246, 249  
 Siwa 1: 18  
 Siwalik Hills 3: 121  
 Sjælland (Zealand) 4: 123, 124, 146  
 Skagen National Park 4: 124  
 Skálholt 4: 133  
 Skanderbeg 4: 235  
 Skåne 4: 143, 144  
 Skaraborg 4: 143  
 Skellette River 4: 141  
 Skiermiewice 4: 194  
 Skikda 1: 13, 14  
 Skjoldungen 5: 86  
 Skopje 4: 4, 247, 248, 258  
 Skótkonung, Olaf 4: 144  
 Slagen 4: 139  
 Slav people 4: 4, 8, 17, 128, 130, 179, 198, 200, 232, 235, 241, 243, 244, 246, 247, 248, 252, 253, 284, 288, 291, 295, 296, 297, 303, 307, 309, 312, 313  
 Slavonia 4: 172  
 Slem Reap 3: 251  
 Sliven 4: 239  
 SLORC\* (State Law and Order Restoration Council) [Myanmar] 3: 250  
 Slovak people 4: 198, 250  
 Slovakia 4: 4, 197, 198, 205  
 Slovene Cultural Society 4: 200  
 Slovene language 4: 200  
 Slovene people 4: 200, 232  
 Slovenia 4: 4, 12, 172, 199-200, 205, 247  
 Slovenska Republika (see Slovakia)  
 Slupsk 4: 194  
 Smith, Jan 1: 308  
 Smolensk 4: 289, 299, 303  
 Smolikas Mountain 4: 14  
 Smolyan 4: 239  
 Snake River 2: 26  
 Sněžka, Mount 4: 177, 193  
 Snowdon massif 4: 71  
 So'-Ichanhoue 1: 145  
 Soan culture 3: 127  
 Soares, Mario 4: 87  
 Soava 1: 145  
 Soha River 1: 75  
 Sobaek (mountain chain) 3: 187  
 Sobas 2: 148  
 Sobhuza I, king of Swaziland 1: 301  
 Sobhuza II, king of Swaziland 1: 301  
 Social Democratic Party (Denmark) 4: 125  
 Social Democratic Party (Germany) 4: 186  
 Social Democratic Party (Russia) 4: 304  
 Social Democratic Party (Sweden) 4: 144  
 Social Democratic Party (Switzerland) 4: 204  
 Social Labour Party (St. Lucia) 2: 165  
 Social Realism 4: 63  
 Social War 4: 24  
 Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia 4: 236  
 Socialist Front (Singapore) 3: 312  
 Socialist Party (Belgium) 4: 63  
 Socialist Party (France) 4: 70  
 Socialist Party (Netherlands) 4: 192  
 Society Islands 5: 40, 42  
 Society of St. Hermagoras 4: 200  
 Socotra 1: 338, 3: 6  
 Socrates 4: 7  
 Sodalankyla 4: 128  
 Sodermanland 4: 143  
 Solala 1: 291, 292  
 Solala Bay 1: 291  
 Solha 4: 4, 238, 239, 241, 258  
 Sogdiana 3: 345, 4: 306  
 Sögn og fjordane 4: 138  
 Sokode 1: 179, 180  
 Sokoto 1: 169, 170, 171  
 Sokoto Empire 1: 182  
 Solar system 5: 125, 126  
 Soledad, Isla (East Falkland Island) 2: 336  
 Soledad Botanical Garden 2: 147  
 Soler, Ricamnte 2: 114  
 Soléuic, Mont 4: 83  
 Solidarity (Polish union) 4: 196  
 Solitude Island 5: 87  
 Solo man 3: 4  
 Solo River 3: 301  
 Solola 2: 91  
 Solomon, king of Israel 3: 43  
 Solomon Islands 5: 1, 4, 5, 28, 31-32  
 Solomon-Trench 5: 1  
 Solomonic dynasty 1: 111  
 Solomos, Dionisios 4: 17  
 Solothurn 4: 202  
 Solway Firth 4: 72  
 Somali Basin 1: 241  
 Somali Coast, French 1: 113  
 Somali Coast Liberation Front (FLCS) 1: 113  
 Somali people 1: 109, 227  
 Somali Youth League 1: 116  
 Somalia 1: 4, 5, 8, 105, 112, 113, 114, 116, 117, 118, 336; 4: 27  
 Somaliland, French 1: 118  
 Somaliland, Italian 1: 116  
 Somapuri 3: 103  
 Somba people 1: 145  
 Somers Island 5: 88  
 Somogy 4: 254  
 Somoza family 2: 111  
 Son La 3: 263  
 Søndre Strømfjord 5: 86  
 Song Be 3: 263  
 Song Da (river) 3: 262  
 Song (Song) dynasty 3: 179, 180, 208  
 Song Hong (river) 3: 262, 264, 265  
 Song Lo (river) 3: 262  
 Songak 3: 184, 185  
 Songhai Empire 1: 7, 67, 74, 153  
 Songhai people 1: 66, 73  
 Sonora 2: 102  
 Sonoran Desert 2: 82  
 Sonsonate 2: 91  
 Sophocles 4: 7  
 Sopravento Islands 1: 149, 150  
 Sør Trøndelag 4: 138  
 Sorbonne University 4: 8, 67  
 Soriano 2: 306  
 Sorkh, Sheikh r- 3: 15  
 Soromenio, Castro 1: 277  
 Sotho people (see BaSotho people)  
 Sotavento Islands 1: 149, 150  
 Sotuba 1: 67  
 Soubre 1: 151, 152  
 Soutiere, Mount 2: 166  
 Souk Ahras 1: 13  
 Soulgina Vongsa 3: 256  
 Soum 1: 147  
 Somman River 1: 11  
 Soumon, Cape 4: 32  
 Souphanouvong 3: 256  
 Soumou 1: 147  
 Sous, Wadi 1: 26  
 Sousse 1: 32, 33  
 Soussou (Susu) people 1: 161  
 South Africa 1: 5, 274, 295, 300, 301, 309, 310, 5: 97, 172, 175  
 South America 2: 2, 3, 5-6, 81, 82, 83, 187, 4: 1, 5: 131  
 South American Common Market 2: 84  
 South Australia 5: 11, 13, 16  
 South Cocos Island 2: 337  
 South Carolina 2: 31, 36  
 South China Sea 3: 254, 261, 267, 294, 295, 300, 310  
 South Dakota 2: 31, 35, 16  
 South Georgia Island 2: 336, 5: 91, 95, 96  
 South Holland 4: 190  
 South Island (New Zealand) 5: 2, 23, 24, 25, 26  
 South Korea 3: 6, 187, 190, 209, 219, 5: 168 (see also Korea)  
 South Korean people 3: 20  
 South L'angwa National Park 1: 303  
 South Orkney Islands 5: 91  
 South Ossetia, Republic of 4: 290  
 South Pole 5: 91, 94, 95, 96, 100  
 South Sandwich Islands 2: 336, 5: 91  
 South Thiladunmathi 3: 120  
 South Vietnam 3: 253, 264 (see also Vietnam)  
 South West Africa People's Organization (SWAPO) 1: 295  
 Southampton (England) 4: 76  
 Southampton Island 5: 88  
 Southern Africa 1: 273-320  
 Southern Alps 5: 24, 25, 41  
 Southern Cook Islands 5: 40  
 Southern Ocean (see Antarctic Ocean)  
 Southern Sinai 1: 18  
 Southern Uplands (Scotland) 4: 71  
 Southland (New Zealand) 5: 25  
 Souvanna Phouma 3: 256  
 Souza Cruz 2: 195  
 Sovereign Democratic Republic of Fiji (see Fiji)  
 Sovereign Order of the Knights of Malta 4: 31  
 Sovetskaya Gavan 4: 303  
 Soviet territories 3: 6  
 Soviet Union (see Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (U.S.S.R.))  
 Soweto 1: 6, 300, 310  
 Spain 2: 7, 9, 41, 83, 158, 210; 4: 2, 4, 8, 9, 10, 12, 24, 26, 31, 32, 57, 58, 83, 88, 94, 95, 96, 190; 5: 97  
 Spain, colonization in the Americas 3: 298, 299, 5: 22, 38  
 Spain, possessions in Africa 1: 5, 337, 338  
 Spanish American War 2: 340  
 Spanish Armada 4: 77, 94  
 Spanish Civil War 4: 94  
 Spanish Guinea 1: 222  
 Spanish Inquisition 4: 94  
 Spanish language 2: 87, 97, 102, 109, 148, 258  
 Spanish people 4: 20  
 Spanish Sahara 1: 337  
 Spanish Succession, War of the 2: 22, 4: 26, 83, 190  
 Spanish Town 2: 157  
 Sparrows Point 2: 38  
 Sparta 4: 7  
 Specola 4: 13  
 Speightstown 2: 145  
 Speke, J. H. 1: 236, 238  
 Spencer Gull 5: 7, 14  
 Spenser, Edmund 4: 77  
 Spey River 4: 72  
 Spice Islands (see Moluccas)  
 Spice Route 3: 8, 346, 347  
 Spinola, Antonio de 4: 29, 87  
 Spitsbergen Island 4: 2, 137, 5: 87, 89  
 Split 4: 243, 257, 258  
 Sporades Islands 4: 16  
 Spratly Islands 3: 149  
 Srija 4: 245  
 Sredna Gora 4: 238  
 Sri Jayawardanepura 3: 129  
 Sri Lanka (Sri Lanka Pajathanika Samajavadi Jami-jaya) 3: 2, 6, 10, 99, 100, 107, 128, 130, 131, 132, 133, 134, 351, 5: 175  
 Sri Lanka Freedom Party 3: 130  
 Sinagar 3: 106  
 Srivijaya Empire 3: 298, 304, 309, 312  
 Staatenland 5: 27  
 Stabroek 1: 336  
 Stael, Madlame de 4: 70  
 Stalm, Joseph 4: 196, 200, 304  
 Stalinabad (see Dushanbe)  
 Stalingrad (see Volgograd)  
 Stamp Act (Great Britain) 2: 41  
 Standard Oil 2: 8  
 Stanley, Henry Morton 1: 207, 234, 236, 239, 241, 242, 245, 246  
 Stanley Falls (Bovoma Falls) 1: 241, 247  
 Stanley Park 2: 45  
 Stanley Pool 1: 248  
 Stamm Creek 2: 86  
 Stara Planina (see Balkan Mountains)  
 Stara Zagora 4: 239  
 State Law and Order Restoration Council (SLORC) [Myanmar] 3: 250  
 Staten Island 2: 33, 47, 48  
 Stato della Città del Vaticano (see Vatican City)  
 Statue of Liberty 2: 47  
 Stuvanger 4: 138, 139  
 Stavropol 4: 299  
 Stefan II Nemanja, king of Greater Serbia 4: 246  
 Steiermark 4: 175  
 Stein, Gertrude 2: 43  
 Steller, Georg Wilhelm 5: 89  
 Stelvio National Park 4: 20  
 Stephen I, king of Hungary 4: 198  
 Stephen III (the Great), king of Moldavia 4: 296  
 Stettin, Peace of 4: 125  
 Stevens, Siaka 1: 178  
 Stevenson, Robert Louis 5: 33  
 Stewart Island 5: 23, 25  
 Stockholm 4: 4, 141, 142, 143, 144, 145-146  
 Stonehenge 4: 96  
 Stoppani, Antonio 3: 53  
 Stornoway 4: 72  
 Straits Settlements 3: 310, 312  
 Strashbourg 4: 64, 66-67  
 Stratford (New Zealand) 5: 26  
 Středoecký 4: 178  
 Středoslovenský 4: 198  
 Stringberg, August 4: 142, 144  
 Stroessner, Alfredo 2: 304  
 Strokul Geyser 4: 145  
 Stromboli Volcano 4: 19, 31  
 Struma Valley 4: 240, 248  
 Strumtsa River 4: 248  
 Strymon River 4: 15  
 Stuart, House of 4: 77  
 Stubai Alps 4: 173  
 Stung Treng 3: 251  
 Stuttgart 4: 182  
 Styrmfalias 4: 15  
 Styria 4: 175  
 Suakin 1: 78  
 Suárez, Adolfo 4: 94  
 Suárez, Marco Fidel 2: 251  
 Suazo Córdova, Roberto 2: 98  
 Sub-Antarctic region 5: 92-94, 95, 96  
 Sublime Porte 3: 55, 4: 252, 296  
 Subotica 4: 245  
 Subtropical Belt 2: 35, 36  
 Succava 4: 250, 252  
 Succvita, monastery of 4: 258  
 Suchate River 2: 93  
 Suchitepequez 2: 94  
 Sucre (Bolivia) 2: 239, 241  
 Sucre (Colombia) 2: 250  
 Sucre (Venezuela) 2: 207, 208  
 Sucre, Antonio Jose de 2: 241, 255  
 Sud (department, Haiti) 2: 162  
 Sud-Est (department, Haiti) 2: 162  
 Sudan 1: 5, 61, 64, 74-78, 80, 111, 335, 336  
 Sudan, French (see Mali)  
 Sudanese Empire 1: 159, 162  
 Sudanese people 1: 4, 12, 64, 66, 68, 70, 76, 106, 144, 145, 149, 151, 152, 157, 161, 163, 169, 172, 174, 180, 181, 207, 211, 211, 239, 242  
 Sudanese People 1: 117  
 Sudavisa 3: 120  
 Sudbury 2: 19  
 Sudd region 1: 75, 76, 77  
 Sudeten Mountains 4: 194  
 Sudetenland 4: 10  
 Sudhland 4: 132  
 Sudhurnes 4: 132  
 Suebi people 4: 87, 93  
 Suez (city) 1: 18, 20  
 Suez, Isthmus of 1: 1, 17, 20, 3: 1  
 Suez Canal 1: 18, 20, 21, 35, 105, 113, 117, 118, 182, 4: 78  
 Sufetula 1: 34  
 Sugar Act (Great Britain) 2: 41  
 Sugar Loaf Mountain 2: 211  
 Suhai 3: 50  
 Suharto 3: 305  
 Sühbaatar 3: 203  
 Sui dynasty 3: 179  
 Suone people 4: 142  
 Suisse romande (see Switzerland)  
 Sukarno 3: 305  
 Sukhothai 3: 259, 260  
 Sukhumi 4: 290  
 Sukuma people 1: 234  
 Sukuta 1: 155  
 Sulu Islands 3: 300  
 Sulaiman Range 3: 13, 124  
 Sulawesi (see Celebes)  
 Sulaymaniyah, as- 3: 38  
 Suleyman I (the Magnificent), sultan of Ottoman Empire 3: 59  
 Suleyman Mosque 3: 60  
 Sulma 4: 252  
 Sulla 4: 24  
 Sully, duc de 4: 69  
 Sulu Islands 3: 297  
 Sulu Sea 3: 296, 306  
 Sumatra (Sumatra) 3: 2, 8, 300-301, 302, 303, 304, 305  
 Sumba Island 3: 300  
 Sumbawa Island 3: 300  
 Sumerians 3: 8, 23, 24, 35, 39, 52, 347  
 Sumgait 4: 287  
 Sunny 4: 309

- Sun 5: 125–126, 129, 130, 141, 171  
 Sun Belt 2: 37  
 Sun Yat sen 3: 181  
 Sunbaatar 3: 204  
 Sunda Islands 3: 300, 302  
 Sundiata 1: 68  
 Sung (Song) dynasty 3: 179, 180, 208  
 Sungari (river) 3: 171  
 Sunkosi (river) 3: 131  
 Sunni Muslims 3: 14, 16, 29, 32, 34, 36, 37, 46, 47, 48, 49, 53, 61, 62, 66  
 Sunrise (island chain) 5: 20–21  
 Sunset (island chain) 5: 20  
 Sumsu Mount 1: 302  
 Sunyani 1: 158  
 Suomen Tasavalta (see Finland)  
 Superior Lake 2: 13, 25  
 Suphan Daeng (mountain) 3: 57  
 Supremacy, Act of (England) 4: 77  
 Sur (Oman) 3: 50  
 Surabaya 3: 302, 304  
 Surami (Suram) Mountains 4: 290  
 Surat (India) 3: 113  
 Surat Thani (Thailand) 3: 259  
 Suru River 4: 83  
 Surinam (country) 2: 4, 202, 204, 339  
 Suriname (district) 2: 203  
 Surinen people 2: 204  
 Surkhani Darya (river) 4: 312  
 Surrealism 4: 63  
 Suit 1: 23  
 Surtsey Island 4: 131  
 Sutud Ad (mountain) 1: 114  
 Suta 3: 33, 35  
 Suseos 1: 111  
 Sutjeska National Park 4: 236  
 Suttler River 3: 107, 124  
 Suya 5: 4, 18, 19  
 Sivo Rudihe (mountain) 4: 245  
 Siwa yida as 3: 54, 55  
 Suwalki 4: 194  
 Siwón 3: 188, 189  
 Svalbard Islands 4: 137, 5: 85, 86, 87, 89, 90  
 Svappavara 4: 143  
 Svartisen Icefield 4: 138  
 Svatopluk, prince of Moravia 4: 179  
 Svety Riegn 3: 251  
 Swacaland 4: 141  
 Swat people 4: 142, 144  
 Sverdlövs 4: 299, 300  
 Sverker dynasty 4: 144  
 Swabian Jura 4: 180  
 Swabian people 4: 25  
 Swabian Plateau 4: 180  
 Swahili language 1: 226, 227, 234, 236, 280  
 Swahili people 1: 227, 285, 292  
 Swakopmund 1: 294  
 SWAPO (South West Africa People's Organization) 1: 295  
 Swazi people 1: 297, 301  
 Swaziland 1: 5, 300, 301  
 Sweden 4: 4, 6, 9, 121, 122, 141–143, 145, 146, 5: 97  
 Swedish language 4: 142  
 Swedish people 4: 121, 124, 130  
 Swiss Confederation 4: 203, 204  
 Switzerland 4: 4, 12, 172, 201, 204, 205, 206, 5: 97  
 Sybaris 4: 24  
 Sydney 5: 7, 11, 14, 43  
 Sydney Cove 5: 16  
 Sydney Opera House 5: 42–43  
 Sylhet 3: 103  
 Sylvester II, pope 4: 256  
 Symbolists 4: 63  
 Symmachus 4: 25  
 Syngman Rhee 3: 190  
 Syr Darya (river) 4: 293  
 Syr Darya Valley 4: 294  
 Syracuse 4: 24  
 Syria 3: 6, 11, 30, 48, 52–56, 65, 65, 4: 24  
 Syrian Desert 3: 37, 63–64  
 Syrian Arabian Plateau 3: 11  
 Svir 1: 22  
 Syrtica region 1: 22, 24  
 Szabolcs Szatmai Bereg 4: 254  
 Szczecin 4: 194, 195  
 Szeged 4: 253, 254, 255  
 Szekeleshegyvár 4: 254  
 Szombathely 4: 253  
**T**  
 Taal Mount 3: 313  
 Tabagah Dam 3: 54  
 Tabasara, Serrana de 2: 112  
 Tabasco 2: 102  
 Tabinshwehti 3: 249  
 Table Bay 1: 310  
 Table Mountain 1: 298  
 Labora 1: 234, 235  
 Tabou 1: 153  
 Tabriz 3: 32, 33, 34, 35, 351  
 Tabuk 3: 19  
 Tachira 2: 207, 208  
 Tactus 4: 25, 122  
 Tacna 2: 258  
 Tacari people 1: 68  
 Tacuarembó 2: 306  
 Tadjoura 1: 113, 117  
 Tadjoura Gulf of 1: 112, 118  
 Tachback (mountain range) 3: 183, 187, 209  
 Tachong River 3: 183, 184, 185  
 Taegu 3: 188, 189, 190  
 Taegu Plain 3: 187  
 Tachan Minguk (see South Korea)  
 Tachon 3: 188, 189  
 Tafia 5: 37  
 Tafeberg 2: 202  
 Tait, William Howard 2: 8, 43  
 Tagalog 3: 296, 297  
 Tagant 1: 70  
 Tagore, Rabindranath 3: 117, 118  
 Tagus River 4: 85, 89  
 Tahiti Island 5: 40  
 Tahan Mount 3: 306  
 Tahat Mount 1: 11  
 Tahrid dynasty 3: 36  
 Tahiti 5: 39, 40  
 Tahitian language 5: 39  
 Tahitian people 5: 5, 27, 42  
 Tahoua 1: 73  
 Tai kingdom 3: 268  
 Tai Mo Shan (mountain) 3: 339  
 Tai National Park 1: 151  
 Taiba 1: 175  
 Tachung 3: 207  
 Ta'if 3: 19  
 Tairu 5: 18  
 Taimy District 4: 299  
 Taimy Peninsula 5: 85, 88, 89  
 Taiman 3: 206, 207  
 Tamo people 2: 83, 154, 161  
 Tapa Island 3: 340  
 Taipei 3: 6, 206, 207  
 Taping Rebellion 3: 10, 181  
 Taira family 3: 199  
 Tarrona culture 2: 237  
 Tattung 3: 207  
 Taiwan 3: 6, 167, 18, 192, 195, 200, 206–208, 211, 5: 168  
 Tairvetos, Mount 4: 14  
 Tanyuan 3: 176, 351  
 Taur 3: 61  
 Taj Mahal 3: 134  
 Tajik people 3: 13, 14, 16, 172, 4: 284, 306, 312  
 Tajikistan 4: 4, 284, 305, 306, 313  
 Tajikistan, Federated Republic of 4: 306  
 Tajumulco Volcano 2: 93  
 Takéo 3: 251  
 Takhar 3: 14  
 Takla Makan Desert 3: 170, 171  
 Takla Makan Lake 3: 3  
 Takoradi 1: 157, 158  
 Takur, Al Fagur Hafis Hassan Fali 3: 120  
 Talak Depression 1: 72  
 Talara 2: 260  
 Talaud Islands 3: 300  
 Takahano 2: 244, 245  
 Taldy Kurgan 4: 292  
 Tallinn 4: 4, 126, 145, 146  
 Tamale 1: 156, 157, 158  
 Taman Negara National Park 3: 306  
 Tamamasset 1: 13  
 Tamaulipas 2: 102  
 Tambucondia 1: 173, 174, 175  
 Tambao 1: 148  
 Tambow 4: 209  
 Tambora kingdom 3: 260  
 Tamerlane (Timur Lang) 3: 16, 36, 116, 4: 292, 312, 314  
 Tamil Nadu 3: 107, 109  
 Tamil people 3: 128, 129, 130, 132, 294  
 Tamm 3: 38  
 Tampa 2: 33, 40  
 Tampere 4: 128, 129  
 Tampico 2: 104  
 Tampico River 2: 100  
 Tami G. I. Cikaya U. I. 218  
 Tamsui River 3: 206  
 Tan, Tan 1: 28  
 Tana Lake 1: 75, 80, 108, 117  
 Tana River 1: 224  
 Tananarive (Antananarivo) 1: 5, 283, 284, 285, 286  
 Tandile 1: 63  
 Tang (T'ang) dynasty 3: 179, 180  
 Tanga 1: 234, 235  
 Tanganyika 1: 209, 234, 236 (see also Tanzania)  
 Tanganyika Lake 1: 105, 207, 208, 209, 228, 233, 241, 248  
 Tangier 1: 27, 28, 30  
 Tangun 3: 18  
 Tannibar Islands 3: 400  
 Tannithari 3: 247, 248, 249  
 Tanna Island 5: 36  
 Tannu Ola Range 3: 202  
 Tannuuhah Ras at 3: 20  
 Tano River 1: 156  
 Tanta 1: 18  
 Tantrism 3: 168  
 Taniun 4: 146  
 Tanzania 1: 5, 207, 233, 236, 247, 5: 148  
 Tanzanian Plateau 1: 233  
 Taoism 3: 8, 9, 133  
 Taoudeni Plain 1: 67  
 Taouate 1: 28  
 Taoyuan 3: 207, 208  
 TAPI (Trans-Siberian Pipeline) 3: 20, 21  
 Tapoa 1: 147  
 Tapti River 3: 107, 108  
 Taqut Island 2: 263  
 Tarab 1: 169  
 Tarabulus 1: 23 (see also Tripoli)  
 Tarimaki 5: 25, 26  
 Taranto 4: 21, 22, 24  
 Taranto Gulf of 4: 19  
 Tarapaca 2: 244, 246  
 Tarata Range 5: 24  
 Tarawa 5: 4  
 Tarawa Atoll 5: 19, 20  
 Tarbagatay Range 4: 291  
 Tati 1: 13  
 Tathunai 1: 23  
 Tatarja 2: 239  
 Tarn River 3: 3, 170, 349  
 Tarkwa 1: 158  
 Tarnobrzeg 4: 194  
 Tarnow 4: 194  
 Taroudant 1: 28  
 Tarquima 4: 32  
 Tarracensis 4: 93  
 Tartagon 4: 8  
 Tarso Emissou (volcano) 1: 62  
 Taurus, Plain of 3: 343, 345  
 Tartu 4: 126  
 Tartus 3: 54  
 Tasaday people 3: 313  
 Tashauz 4: 307  
 Tashkent 4: 4, 311, 312, 314  
 Tasman, Abel 5: 5, 16, 27  
 Tasman Sea 5: 23, 24  
 Tasmania 5: 2, 8, 9, 11, 14, 16, 41  
 Tasmanian people 5: 6  
 Tata 1: 28  
 Tatabánya 4: 254, 255  
 Tataboune 1: 33  
 Tatai people 4: 286, 289, 296, 297, 306, 309, 311, 313  
 Tataria 4: 299  
 Tatra Mountains 4: 197, 205  
 Tatra National Park (Poland) 4: 193  
 Tatra National Park (Slovakia) 4: 197  
 Taupo Lake 5: 24  
 Taurus (see Tabriz)  
 Taurus Mountains 3: 53, 57, 64  
 Tavignano River 4: 65  
 Tavolara River 4: 19  
 Tavoy 3: 249  
 Tawau 3: 308  
 Tawila 3: 345  
 Tay Ninh 3: 263  
 Tay River 4: 72  
 Tava, Maawiva Ould Sid Ahmed 1: 71  
 Tayshet 4: 303  
 Taza 1: 28  
 Taznba 1: 24  
 Tazzecka National Park 1: 27  
 Tbilisi (Tiflis) 4: 4, 289, 290  
 Tébessa 1: 13  
 Tebessa Mountains 1: 31  
 Teboursouk Mountains 1: 31  
 Tebu people 1: 22, 63  
 Tegucigalpa 2: 96, 97, 98  
 Tethian 3: 6, 11, 31, 32, 33, 35, 36, 65  
 Tehuantepec Isthmus of 2: 85, 99, 116  
 Tchueltche people 2: 297  
 Teide, Pico de 3: 338  
 Tejo River 4: 85, 89  
 Teke people (see Balteke people)  
 Tekke River 1: 106, 117  
 Tekke people 4: 308  
 Tekur people 1: 70, 175  
 Tel Aviv 3: 41, 42  
 Telt 2: 97  
 Telenmark 4: 138  
 Telenman 4: 250  
 Tell Atlas 1: 11, 14 (see also Atlas Mountains)  
 Tell Hamri 3: 55  
 Tell Mandikh 3: 55  
 Tell Rimad 3: 55  
 Tem people 1: 179  
 Tenna 1: 157, 158  
 Temasek (Singapore) 3: 312  
 Tembladora 2: 167  
 Tembo Mountains 1: 219, 221  
 Temburong 3: 294  
 Temtau 4: 292  
 Temne people 1: 177  
 Temota 5: 31  
 Temuco 2: 244  
 Tenasserim 3: 247, 248, 249  
 Tenasserim Yoma (mountain range) 3: 246  
 Tenere region 1: 72, 79  
 Tenerife Island 1: 338  
 Tennessee 2: 31, 36, 37  
 Tenochtitlan 2: 82, 101, 105  
 Tensift River 1: 26  
 Tent Bay 2: 145  
 Teotihuacan (mountain) 2: 116  
 Teotihuacan 2: 116  
 Tepexpan 2: 82, 104  
 Tephu people 3: 105  
 Terai region 3: 121  
 Terengganu 3: 308  
 Termez 4: 314  
 Teropol 4: 309  
 Terra Australis Incognita 5: 5, 6, 16, 93  
 Terra Nova Bay 5: 95  
 Tertiary Period 3: 37, 5: 137  
 Tesyn River 3: 202  
 Tetari, Pico 2: 205  
 Tete 1: 291, 292  
 Tethys Sea 4: 1, 11  
 Tetuarua Island 5: 40  
 Tétouan 1: 28, 29  
 Tzukel Khan 4: 292  
 Teutonic Knights 4: 122, 127, 196  
 Teutonic peoples 4: 142  
 Texas 2: 31, 35, 37, 38, 41, 47, 48, 106, 5: 175  
 Thu Yang 3: 259  
 Thaba Putsoa (mountain range) 1: 281, 282  
 Thaba Tseka 1: 282  
 Thabana Ntlenyama (mountain range) 1: 296  
 Thar Bimbi 3: 263  
 Thai language 3: 258  
 Thai Nguyen 3: 264  
 Thai people 3: 245, 253, 254, 255, 256, 260  
 Thailand 3: 6, 180, 245, 249, 253, 257, 261, 260, 261, 267, 268, 309  
 Thailand Gulf of 3: 257, 259  
 Thailand Kingdom of 3: 258  
 Thames River 4: 72  
 Thamugudi 1: 15  
 Thang Long (see Hanoi)  
 Thanh Hoa 3: 263  
 Thanh Pho Ho Chi Minh (see Ho Chi Minh City)  
 Thani ibn al-Muallal 3: 52  
 Thar Desert 3: 107, 108, 124, 132  
 Thatcher, Margaret 4: 78  
 Thebes 1: 36, 4: 7  
 Theodor II, emperor of Ethiopia 1: 111, 112  
 Theodor, king of the Visigoths 4: 25  
 Theodosius I, Roman emperor 4: 25, 93  
 Theodoros, Konstantinos 4: 17, 99, 116  
 Theravada Buddhism 3: 249, 251, 253, 256, 258, 260  
 Theresa, Mother 3: 132  
 Thessaloniki 4: 14, 15, 16, 17  
 Thessaly 4: 14, 16, 17, 32, 236  
 Thibron 3: 343  
 Thies 1: 174, 175  
 Thiladumathi 3: 120  
 Thimphu 3: 6, 104, 105  
 Thionville 4: 66, 67  
 Third World 5: 160, 162, 167, 168  
 Thirt Years War 4: 9, 26, 65, 144, 176, 179, 186, 190, 206  
 Thorsa Glacier 4: 131  
 Tho Tai people 3: 263  
 Thomas, Dylan 4: 78  
 Thon Buri 3: 259  
 Thonga people 1: 293  
 Thoreau, Henry David 2: 42  
 Thousand and One Nights 1: 20  
 Thousand Buddhas Temple of the 3: 211  
 Thrace 3: 56, 57, 58, 60, 63, 343, 4: 12, 14, 232, 241  
 Thracian people 4: 241  
 Thracian Plateau 4: 240  
 Thracian/Macedonian massif (see Rodopi massif)  
 Three Mile Island 2: 37  
 Three Years War 2: 106  
 Thuan Hai 3: 263  
 Thuburbo Majus 1: 34  
 Thugga 1: 34  
 Thule 5: 86, 88  
 Thule expeditions 5: 90  
 Thurgau 4: 202  
 Thuringen 4: 182  
 Thuringian Forest 4: 180  
 Tiahuanaco 2: 260, 264  
 Tiahuanaco people 2: 237  
 Tian Shan (mountain range) 3: 2, 169, 170, 4: 291, 293  
 Tiananmen Square 3: 174, 182  
 Tianjin 3: 172, 173, 174, 175  
 Tietar 1: 13  
 Tiberias Lake 3: 41, 42  
 Tiberias 4: 25  
 Tibesti massif 1: 62, 72  
 Tibesti region 1: 63, 64  
 Tibet 3: 5, 168, 170, 171, 172, 173, 211, 212, 351  
 Tibetan Plateau 3: 2, 106  
 Tibetan people 3: 105, 122, 258  
 Tibeto Burman peoples 3: 172, 245, 255  
 Ticino (Tessin) 4: 12, 202

- Ticno River 4: 201  
 Tidaholm 4: 143  
 Tien Giang 3: 263  
 Tiepolo Giovanni Battista 4: 26  
 Tierra del Fuego 2: 2 6 245  
   291 292 293 295 296  
   309 5: 93  
 Tierra Firme 2: 114  
 Tierras Altas 2: 81  
 Tigre 1: 107 109 110  
 Tigre people 1: 109 117  
 Tigre region 1: 106 108 111  
 Tigris Bafados 1: 275  
 Tigris River 3: 37 38 57 64  
 Tijuana 2: 115  
 Tikal 2: 95  
 Tikal National Park 2: 93  
 Tika people 1: 211  
 Tikopia Island 5: 31  
 Tilak Bal Gangadhar 3: 117  
 Tilemsi 1: 148  
 Tilemsi Valley 1: 65  
 Tillabery 1: 73  
 Timbuktu 1: 66 67 68 80  
 Timbri 2: 201  
 Timetrine Plateau 1: 65 66  
 Tingad 1: 15  
 Tinnis 4: 250  
 Timisoara 4: 249 250, 251 252  
 Timor Island 3: 300  
 Timor Sea 3: 339 5: 7  
 Timor Timur 3: 302  
 Timor Lang (Tamerlane) 3: 16  
   36 116 4: 292 314  
 Timuid people 3: 16 36  
   4: 312  
 Tindouf 1: 15  
 Tinerhir 1: 36  
 Tingrela 1: 152  
 Tinoco Granados Federico  
   2: 89  
 Tintamarre Island 2: 338  
 Tipasa 1: 13  
 Tipperary 4: 80  
 Tirane (Tirana) 4: 4 233 234  
 Tիրոյ Mureş 4: 251 252  
 Tiris Zemniour 1: 70  
 Tirol (Tyrol) 4: 172 175  
 Tirolean Alps 4: 173  
 Tissaphernes 3: 343  
 Tissemsilt 1: 13  
 Tisza Plain 4: 197  
 Tisza River 4: 2 244 249 255  
 Titano Monte 4: 30 32  
 Titian 4: 26  
 Titicaca Lake 2: 238 256 257  
   263 264  
 Titiv Mount 4: 247  
 Tito 4: 200 236 247 218 258  
 Titograd 4: 235 245  
 Titus Roman emperor 3: 43  
 Titus Iulius 4: 8 25  
 Turkmenistan Respublikasy  
   (see Turkmenistan)  
 Tiv people 1: 169  
 Tivoli Gardens 4: 146  
 Tizi Ouzou 1: 13  
 Tizmit 1: 28  
 Tlatelolco 2: 116  
 Tlaxcala 2: 102  
 Tlemcen 1: 7 13  
 Toamasina 1: 283 284 285  
 Toba Lake 3: 301  
 Tobago (see Trinidad and  
   Tobago)  
 Tocantins 2: 191  
 Tocantins Basin 2: 189  
 Tochi 3: 192  
 Tocooro 2: 208  
 Togado forest reserve 1: 179  
 Togder 1: 115  
 Togliatti 4: 300  
 Togo 1: 5 144 179 180 181  
   182  
 Togo Lake 1: 179  
 Togo Mountains 1: 144 156  
   179  
 Togo People's Union 1: 180  
 Togo Hideki 3: 200  
 Tok Pisin language 5: 29  
 Tokando megalopolis 3: 193  
 Tokelau Islands 5: 38 40  
 Tokon 1: 180  
 Tokugawa family 3: 193 200  
 Tokugawa Ieyasu 3: 199  
 Tokushima 3: 192  
 Tokyo 3: 6 7, 190, 191 192  
   193 196 197 199 210  
   211 212  
 Tolbukhin 4: 239  
 Toledo (Belize) 2: 86  
 Toledo (Spain) 4: 93  
 Tolhary 1: 283 284 285  
 Tolima 2: 250  
 Tolna 4: 254  
 Tolstoy Pyotr Andreyevich  
   4: 304  
 Toltec civilization 2: 85 110  
   116  
 Tonia people 1: 161  
 Tomb of the Unknown Soldier  
   2: 48  
 Tombalbaye François 1: 65  
 Tombali 1: 164  
 Tomislav duke of Croatia  
   4: 243  
 Tomislav II (Duke Aimonc of  
   Savoy Aosta) 4: 244  
 Tomsk 4: 299  
 Ton-ton Macoutes 2: 163  
 Tonga Kingdom of 5: 3 4  
   34 35  
 Tonga Trench 5: 1 2  
 Tongan language 5: 34  
 Tongatapu Island 5: 44 35  
 Tonga River 3: 104  
 Tonkin 3: 245 261 262 264  
 Tonkin Gulf of 3: 254 261  
   262  
 Tonkin Plain 3: 263  
 Tonk Sap River 3: 251  
 Toraja people 3: 301  
 Tordevillas Treaty of 2: 197  
 Torino (Turin) 4: 128  
 Toro kingdom 1: 238  
 Toronto 2: 13 15 17 19 22  
   33 120  
 Tororo 1: 238  
 Torres Luis Vázquez 5: 16  
 Torres Islands 5: 36 37  
 Torres Strait 5: 9 16  
 Torres Omar 2: 114  
 Tortiva 1: 182  
 Tortola Island 2: 33/  
 Tortuga Island 2: 161 162 205  
 Tortuguero National Park 2: 88  
 Tortuguero River 2: 88  
 Torun 4: 194  
 Tost language 4: 233  
 Totomacapan 2: 94  
 Totton 3: 192  
 Touba 1: 152  
 Toubkal Mountain 1: 26  
 Toubkal National Park 1: 27 35  
 Toucouleur people 1: 70 174  
 Toulouse 4: 64 66-67 69  
 Tourcoing 4: 66-67  
 Tourc Samoury 1: 148 153 162  
 Toure Sekou 1: 162  
 Tours 4: 69  
 Tours and Portiers Battle of  
   4: 69  
 Toutsid Pic 1: 62  
 Tov 3: 203  
 Tower of London 4: 95  
 Town and Country Planning  
   Act (Great Britain) 4: 73  
 Town Planning Act (Great  
   Britain) 4: 73  
 Toyama 3: 192  
 Toyotomi Hideyoshi 3: 199  
 Tozeur 1: 33  
 Trabzon 3: 59 343  
 Tracians 4: 255 256  
 Trail (town Canada) 2: 19 120  
 Trailok king of Indochina  
   3: 260  
 Trajan 4: 8 25 93  
 Irakya (see Thrace)  
 Tran dynasty 3: 265  
 Iran Ninth Plateau 3: 255  
 Trans Aral Railroad 4: 291  
 Trans Canada Highway 2: 120  
 Trans Himalayan Plateau  
   3: 121 (see also Himalaya  
   Mountains)  
 Trans Siberian Railroad 3: 5 7  
   4: 291 303  
 Transamazonian Highway  
   2: 191 211 212  
 Transantarctic Mountains 5: 91  
   93 94 98 100  
 Transarabian Pipeline  
   (TAPLINE) 3: 20 21  
 Transbaikalia 4: 302  
 Transcaucasia 3: 7 4: 1 286  
   290  
 Transcaucasia Independent  
   Republic of 4: 290  
 Transcaucasian Federation  
   4: 286  
 Transdanubian region 4: 253  
 Transjordan 3: 29 30  
 Transkei people 1: 297  
 Transleithania 4: 176  
 Transvaal 1: 296 297 298  
   299 309  
 Transylvania 4: 3 349 250  
   251 252 253 256 257 258  
 Transylvanian Alps 4: 249 251  
 Trapani 4: 23  
 Trapazus 3: 59 343  
 Traza 1: 70 71  
 Trasimeno Lake 4: 19  
 Travetere 4: 32  
 Traun River 4: 173  
 Treasury of the Athenians 4: 32  
 Trebizond 3: 59 351  
 Trichville 1: 152  
 Treinta y Tres 2: 306  
 Trellawney 2: 157  
 Tremiti Archipelago 4: 19  
 Trent River 4: 72  
 Trentino Alto Adige 4: 21  
 Trentino region 4: 20 21 22  
 Tres Culturas Plaza de las  
   2 107 116  
 Tres Culturas massacre 2 107  
 Tres Forcas Cape 1: 337  
 Tres Picos Cerro 2: 291  
 Tretyakov Museum 4: 314  
 Trevisani people 4: 83  
 Treviso 4: 21  
 Trezzini Domenico 4: 314  
 Trezzini Giuseppe 4: 314  
 Trianon Locality 4: 249  
 Tribhuvana king of Nepal  
   3: 123  
 Trieste 4: 23  
 Triglav (mountain) 4: 199 242  
 Trincomalee 3: 128  
 Trinidad Jesuit mission of  
   2: 310  
 Trinidad and Tobago 2: 4  
   167 168 169 187  
 Trinit 3: 293 304  
 Triple Alliance 4: 27 252  
 Tripoli (Libanon) 3: 47  
 Tripoli (Libya) 1: 5 21 22 23  
   24 25 36  
 Tripolitania region 1: 22 24 25  
 Tripura 3: 109  
 Tristan da Cunha Island  
   1: 336 337  
 Trivandrum 3: 106  
 Frobriand Islands 5: 28  
 Trois Rivières 2: 22  
 Trollhattan 4: 143  
 Tromelin 1: 336  
 Troms 4: 138  
 Tromsø 4: 137  
 Trondheim 4: 138 139 140  
 Tropic of Cancer 1: 69 149  
   2: 85 100 143 3: 108 191  
   206 246  
 Tropics of Capricorn 2: 300  
   5: 7 8  
 Trotsky Leon 4: 304  
 Troy 3: 345 4: 7  
 Truber P 4: 200  
 Trucial States (see United Arab  
   Emirates)  
 Trudeau Pierre Elliott 2: 23  
 Trujillo (Venezuela) 2: 207  
   208  
 Trujillo Raphael 2: 155-156  
 Truk Island 5: 21  
 Tryggvesson Olaf 4: 140  
 Tsaidam Basin 3: 170  
 Tsaratanana massif 1: 283  
 Tsarskoye Selo 4: 302  
 Tsavo National Park 1: 224  
 Tselinograd 4: 292  
 Tshikapa 1: 244  
 Tshombe, Moise 1: 246  
 Tsingtao 3: 175  
 Tsonga people 1: 297  
 Tsumeb 1: 294  
 Tsushima Current 3: 188  
 Tu Fu 3: 179 180  
 Tualepa people 2: 90  
 Tuamotu Archipelago 5: 40  
 Tuareg people 1: 12 22 27 35  
   36 66, 70 72 73 79 147  
   182  
 Tuba 3: 61  
 Tuhman William 1: 166  
 Tuhmanburg 1: 166  
 Tübrüg 1: 23  
 Tubu people 1: 64  
 Tubuai Islands 5: 40  
 Tuca Cruscup 3: 123  
 Tucumán 2: 295  
 Tucupita 2: 208  
 Tucut River 2: 112  
 Tudor House of 4: 77  
 Tughluq dynasty 3: 116  
 Tuhaata Island 5: 40  
 Tuna River 2: 112  
 Tula 4: 299  
 Tulcea 4: 250  
 Tumaco 2: 248  
 Tumbes 2: 258  
 Tumbo Island 1: 161  
 Tumen River 3: 183 185  
 Tumucumaque Sierra de  
   2, 211  
 Tundzha River 4: 238  
 Tundzha Valley 4: 240  
 Tungdiliak 5: 88 89  
 Tungurahua (province) 2: 254  
 Tungurahua (volcano) 2: 253  
 Tunga people 3: 172 183  
   185 188 202  
 Tunis 1: 5 31 32 33 34 36  
 Tunis Gulf of 1: 31  
 Tunisia 1: 5 10 31 34 35  
 Tunja National Park 2: 249  
 Tupac Sauri 2: 261  
 Tupac Amaru 2: 261  
 Tupac Amaru II (Jose Gabriel  
   3: 123)  
   Condorcanqui 2: 84 241  
   308  
 Tupon George 5: 35  
 Tupungato Mount 2: 291  
 Turan Depression 3: 2 3 4, 1  
   Turhuq 1, 24  
 Tureia Atoll 5: 40  
 Turfan Depression 3: 170  
 Turgay 4: 292  
 Turgovisht 4: 249  
 Turin 4: 20 21 23 24  
 Turkana Lake 1: 108 223 224  
 Turkana people 1: 224  
 Turkistan 3: 14 293 351  
 Turkistan Autonomous  
   Republic of 4: 293  
 Turkey 3: 6 12 56-60 64 65  
   66 4: 12 16  
 Turkic Oghuz languages 4: 307  
 Turkish Republic of Northern  
   Cyprus 3: 26 4: 12  
 Türkiye Cumhuriyeti (see  
   Turkey)  
 Turkmen people 3: 14 32  
   4: 284 307 308  
 Turkmenistan 4: 4 284 306  
   307 308  
 Turks 1: 20 25 107 3: 9 11  
   12 14 21 25, 26 32 48  
   52 53 55, 62 103 116  
   127 172 202 347 4: 232  
   236, 238, 241 248 250  
   252, 256 292 295 306  
   312 314 (see also Ottoman  
   Empire Seljuk Turks)  
 Turks and Caicos Islands 3: 337  
 Turku 4: 128, 129 130  
 Tuzko Pori 4: 129  
 Turner Frederick Jackson 2: 10  
 Turov 4: 289  
 Turri Eugenio 1: 63 5: 136  
 Tuscany 4: 20, 21 24 26 31  
   32  
 Tutong 3: 294  
 Tuttle Julia 2: 47  
 Tutuila 5: 40  
 Tutu people (see BaTutu  
   people)  
 Tuva 4: 299  
 Tuvalu 5: 3, 4 35 36 (see also  
   Ellice Islands)  
 Tuvaluan language 5: 36  
 Tuvu people 4: 300  
 Tuyen Quang 3: 264  
 Tuz Gölü (Lake Tuz) 3: 57, 58  
 Tver 4: 299  
 Twa people (see BaTwa people)  
 Twam, Mark 2: 27 43  
 Twelve Apostles (Australia)  
   5: 173  
 Twelve Years Truce 4: 191  
 Two Sicilies Kingdom of the  
   4: 26  
 Tyne River 4: 72  
 Tyne-mouth 4: 72  
 Tyre 3: 48 349  
 Tyrrhenian Sea 4: 31  
 Tysdal 4: 139  
 Tyumen 4: 299 302  
 U  
 Ua Huka Island 5: 40  
 Ua Pu Island 5: 40  
 Uaxactun 2: 95  
 Ubangi 1: 248  
 Ubangi River 1: 214 215 216  
   217 218 241 245  
 Ubangi Shari (Ubangi Chari)  
   1: 215 216 335  
 Ubrico Jorge 2: 95  
 Ucayali 2: 258  
 Ucayali River 2: 257  
 Uccialli Treaty of 1: 112  
 Uddjaur Lake 4: 141  
 Udmic 4: 21  
 Udmurtiya 4: 299  
 UDS (Union Démocratique  
   Soudanais) [Mal] 1: 68  
 Ula 4: 300  
 Uganda 1: 5 207 209  
   237 239 217 248 336  
 Ugari 3: 55  
 UGFT (General Union of  
   Turkistan Workers) 1: 34  
 Uluhan Park 1: 248  
 Uge 1: 276  
 Ughur people 3: 210  
 Ujjayini 3: 115  
 Ujung Pandang 3: 302 303  
   304  
 Ukrain 4: 4 6 171 301  
   308 311 313 314  
 Ukrainian language 4: 309  
 Ukrainian people 4: 176 134  
   250 284 288 295 297  
   309 313  
 Ukrainsk Sammatian Shield 4: 2  
 Ukrainska Respublika (see  
   Ukraine)  
 Ukrainian Steppes 4: 283  
 Ulaanbaatar (Ulan Bator) 3: 6  
   201 202 203 204 205  
 Uluçin 4: 246  
 Uliga Island 5: 21  
 Ullswater 5: 173  
 Ulsan 3: 188 189  
 Ulster (see Northern Ireland,  
   United Kingdom)  
 Ulua River 2: 96  
 Ulyanovsk 4: 299  
 Umayyad (Umayyad) dynasty  
   3: 21 50, 55 4: 93  
 Umayyad people 3: 39  
 Umbeluzi River 1: 301  
 Umbrian basins 4: 20, 21  
 Umbrian people 4: 20, 24  
 Umbuso weSwatini (Swaziland)  
   1: 5 300-301  
 Umri al-Qaywayn 3: 26, 27, 28  
 Umri Na'an Island 3: 22 23  
 Ummi Qasi 3: 39  
 Ummi Said 3: 51  
 Ummiati River 1: 305  
 Ummiati 1: 307  
 Ummah 1: 306  
 UN (United Nations) 4: 248  
   289, 5: 156

- Unamuno, Miguel de 4: 88, 94  
 Unare Depression 2: 205  
 UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) 5: 156  
 Unfederated Malay States 3: 310  
 UNICEF (United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund) 5: 159  
 UNIDO (United Nations Industrial Development Organization) 5: 156  
 Union, Act of (England) 4: 77, 81  
 Union Civico Radical 2: 298  
 Union Democratique Soudanaise (UDS) [Mali] 1: 68  
 Union des Populations Camerouniennes (UPC) [Cameroon] 1: 213  
 Union Indochinoise 3: 9  
 Union of Malay 3: 310  
 Union of Moderate Parties (Vanuatu) 5: 37  
 Union of South Africa 1: 295, 300, 306  
 Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (U.S.S.R.) 2: 44, 149, 151, 3: 167, 186, 4: 6, 10, 122, 126, 127, 171, 179, 183, 196, 198, 235, 256, 283, 286, 287, 290, 293, 294, 296, 301, 304, 305, 311, 312, 314, 5: 96, 97, 159 (see also Commonwealth of Independent States)  
 Union of the New Hebrides Communities 5: 37  
 UNITA (National Union for the Total Independence of Angola) 1: 277  
 Unité pour le Progrès National (UPRONA) [Burundi] 1: 210  
 United Arab Emirates 3: 6, 26, 28, 52, 5: 164  
 United Arab Republic 3: 56  
 United Fruit Company 2: 8, 89, 95, 98, 114  
 United Kingdom 4: 9, 58, 71, 78 (see also Channel Islands, England, Great Britain, Man, Isle of, Scotland, Wales)  
 United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO) 5: 156  
 United National Party (Sri Lanka) 3: 130  
 United Nations (UN) 4: 248, 289, 5: 156  
 United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) 5: 156  
 United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) 5: 159  
 United Party (UP) [Solomon Islands] 5: 2  
 United Provinces of Central America 2: 84  
 United Somali Congress (USC) 1: 116  
 United States of America 1: 165, 167, 2: 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 18, 23, 24-44, 45, 48, 98, 103, 104, 110, 111, 113, 114, 120, 150, 156, 159, 162, 210, 339, 340, 3: 190, 253, 256, 264, 266, 299, 4: 10, 80, 5: 3, 6, 32, 86, 95, 96, 97, 159, 167  
 United States of America possessions in the Americas 2: 4  
 United States of America, Midwest 2: 35  
 United States of America, New England (see New England)  
 United States of America, North 2: 29, 42  
 United States of America, Northeast 2: 12  
 United States of America, possessions in Oceania 5: 4, 38, 40  
 United States of America, South 2: 9, 12, 29, 36, 42  
 United States of America, Southwest 2: 40  
 United States of America, West 2: 10  
 United States of Belgium 4: 62  
 United States of Brazil 2: 198  
 United States of Venezuela 2: 210  
 United Workers Party (Poland) 4: 196  
 Unomuno, Miguel de 4: 94  
 Unuf, Rival 1: 24  
 UP (United Party) [Solomon Islands] 5: 2  
 UPC (Marxist Union des Populations Camerouniennes) [Cameroon] 1: 213  
 Upolu Island 5: 32, 33  
 Upper Canada 2: 17, 22, 23  
 Upper Dennera Beribce 2: 200  
 Upper Falls 2: 29  
 Upper Nile region 1: 76, 77  
 Upper Nile River 1: 17, 19, 76  
 Upper River (council, The Gambia) 1: 155  
 Upper Senegal Niger 1: 68  
 Upper Tokutu Upper Essequibo 2: 200  
 Upper Volta 1: 68, 148, 335  
 Uppsala 4: 142, 143, 144  
 UPRONA (Unité pour le Progrès National) [Burundi] 1: 210  
 Uri ibi Ahmed 1: 20  
 Ural Altai languages 5: 151  
 Ural Mountains 3: 1, 4: 1, 2, 6, 297, 302  
 Ural River 4: 2  
 Uralic language family 4: 122  
 Uralsk 4: 292  
 Urdu language 3: 100, 116, 137  
 Uriga (see Ulaanbaatar)  
 Uri 4: 202  
 Uruburu Jose F. 2: 298  
 Urima Lake 3: 42, 34  
 Uria people 2: 211  
 Urubamba Cordillera de 2: 261  
 Urubamba River 2: 264  
 Uruguay 2: 4, 8, 81, 83, 84, 304, 308, 310, 5: 97  
 Uruguay River 2: 2, 189, 309  
 Urumqi 3: 171, 210  
 Urundi (see Burundi)  
 Uruzgan 3: 14  
 Osborne Mount 2: 336  
 Ushuaia 2: 291, 309  
 U.S.S.R. (see Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, U.S.S.R.)  
 Ussuri River 3: 171  
 Ust Kamenogorsk 4: 292, 293  
 Ust Ordynski District 4: 299  
 Ustaša (Ustashe) 4: 244, 247  
 Ustunad I ibem 4: 178  
 Ustyurt 4: 312  
 Ustyurt Plateau 4: 291  
 Usulután 2: 91  
 Usumacinta River 2: 93, 100  
 Usutu River 1: 301  
 Utagawa Kuniyoshi 3: 212  
 Utah 2: 28, 29, 31, 37, 45, 46  
 Utemisov, Makhambet 4: 293  
 Uthman dan Fodio 1: 172  
 Utomo Budi 3: 305  
 Utrecht 4: 190, 191  
 Utrecht, Treaty of 4: 26, 94  
 Utrecht, Union of 4: 191  
 Uttar Pradesh 3: 109  
 Uusimaa 4: 129  
 Uva 3: 129  
 Uvea Island 5: 40  
 Uvs 3: 203  
 Uvs, Lake 3: 202  
 Uzbek Khan 4: 312  
 Uzbek people 3: 1, 14, 4: 284, 292, 294, 306, 307, 312, 314  
 Uzbekistan 3: 7, 345, 4: 4, 284, 306, 311, 312, 314  
 V  
 Vaal River 1: 296  
 Vaasa 4: 129, 130  
 Vache Island 2: 161  
 Vadodara 3: 113  
 Vadso 4: 138  
 Vaduz 4: 4, 187, 188, 206  
 Váh River 4: 197  
 Valhegy fortress 4: 258  
 Val people 1: 166  
 Vakaga 1: 215  
 Vakhsh River 4: 306  
 Valars 4: 202  
 Valdar Hills 4: 297  
 Valdemar I (the Great), king of Denmark 4: 125  
 Valdemar IV Atterdag, king of Denmark 4: 125  
 Valdés, Gabriel de la Concepción 2: 150  
 Valdes Peninsula 2: 192  
 Valdivia 2: 243  
 Valdivia, Pedro de 2: 243  
 Valencia 2: 207, 4: 89, 90, 92  
 Valencia, Lake 2: 205  
 Valencia Community 4: 90  
 Valette, L. P. de la 4: 28  
 Valna River 4: 59  
 Valladolid 4: 90  
 Valle 2: 97  
 Valle d'Aosta 4: 21  
 Vallico Cesar 2: 262  
 Valletta 4: 4  
 Valley, The (city, Anguilla) 2: 335  
 Valley of the Kings 1: 20  
 Vallors, Henri V. 2: 3, 5, 5  
 Valparaíso 2: 243, 244, 246  
 Valparaíso region 2: 244  
 Valtellina Valley 4: 18  
 Valverde 2: 154  
 Vam Co River 3: 261  
 Vain Lake 3: 57  
 Vancouver 2: 13, 15, 17, 26, 45, 120  
 Vandals 4: 8, 25, 69, 93  
 Vannri Lake 4: 2, 141  
 Vantaa 4: 129  
 Vantaa Levis Island 5: 18  
 Vanuatu Party (Vanatu) 5: 37  
 Vanuatu 5: 3, 4, 36, 37, 19  
 Vanavasi 3: 131, 134  
 Varangians 4: 144, 303  
 Vardar River 4: 15  
 Vardar Valley 4: 248  
 Vargas, Genbio 2: 195, 198, 199  
 Vargas Ilova, Jorge Mario Pedro 2: 262  
 Varmland 4: 143  
 Varna 4: 238, 239, 241  
 Varna, Gulf of 4: 238  
 Vatheana, Ludovico de 3: 19  
 Vas 4: 254  
 Vasa dynasty 4: 9, 130  
 Vascoas/Phoenix 1: 289  
 Vasthi, Mahmud 4: 306  
 Vaslui 4: 250  
 Vasteras 4: 142, 143  
 Vasterbotten 4: 143  
 Vastmanland 4: 143  
 Vastmanland 4: 143  
 Vat Po Temple 3: 268  
 Vatican City 4: 4, 12, 13  
 Vatican Museum 4: 13  
 Vatikan Palace 4: 13  
 Vatmijokull, Ketfield 4: 131, 132  
 Vättern, Lake 4: 141  
 Vaud Canton 4: 202  
 Vaupes 2: 250  
 Vava'u Islands 5: 34  
 Vaygach Island 5: 88  
 Vaz de Caminha, Pero 2: 197  
 Vaz Ferreira, Carlos 2: 308  
 Vazov, Ivan 4: 241  
 Vázquez, Gregorio 2: 251  
 Vecchio, Ponte 4: 32  
 Vecelli, Irtiano 4: 26  
 Veddas 3: 109, 129, 130  
 Vedic religion 3: 4, 8  
 Vega I ope de 4: 94  
 Vela Island 5: 38  
 Velasco Ibarra, José María 2: 256  
 Velázquez, Diego Rodríguez de Silva (painter) 4: 9, 94  
 Velázquez, Diego de (founder of Santiago and Havana) 2: 150  
 Velde, Henri van de 4: 63  
 Veliki Vitko 4: 236  
 Veliko Tŕnovo 4: 239, 241  
 Veluwezoom, Het National Park (Hoge Veluwe National Park) 4: 189  
 Venda 1: 297  
 Vendas Novas 4: 86  
 Venetian Alps 4: 18  
 Venetian people 3: 147, 4: 17, 235  
 Venetian plain 4: 18, 20, 22  
 Venetian Republic 4: 257  
 Veneto 4: 20, 21, 24, 26  
 Venezia Giulia 4: 12, 21, 27  
 Venezuela 2: 2, 4, 8, 83, 84, 187, 201, 204, 210, 211, 212, 251, 5: 164  
 Venezuela, Gulf of 2: 205  
 Venezuela, United States of 2: 210  
 Venice 3: 351, 4: 8, 19, 21, 24, 24, 26, 31, 32, 232  
 Venni people 4: 20, 24  
 Venizelos, Eleftherios 4: 17  
 Ventana, Sierra 2: 291  
 Venus 5: 125  
 Veracruz 2: 102  
 Veraguas 2: 117  
 Veraguas Mountains 2: 112  
 Veringetorix 4: 67  
 Verde, Cape (see Cape Verde)  
 Verdi, Giuseppe 4: 10, 26  
 Vidun, Treaty of 4: 62, 185  
 Viedma 4: 233  
 \*Vierecking 1: 298  
 Vrihaeren, Linné 4: 63  
 Verissimo, Finco Lopes 2: 101, 107  
 Vermont 2: 31  
 Verona 4: 20, 21  
 Verazzano, Giovanni da 2: 22, 40, 5: 129  
 Verazzano Bridge 2: 48  
 Verri, Pietro 4: 26  
 Versailles, Treaty of 2: 160, 164, 4: 10  
 Versailles Conference 2: 23  
 Versailles Palace 4: 70, 96  
 Vespucci, Amerigo 2: 1, 189, 192, 201, 209, 251, 309, 5: 129  
 Vest Agder 4: 138  
 Vestfold 4: 132  
 Vestfold 4: 138  
 Vestland 4: 132  
 Vesuvius, Mount 4: 19, 5: 135  
 Veszprem 4: 254  
 Viareggio 4: 21  
 Vicente, Gil 4: 87  
 Vicenza 4: 21, 23  
 Vichada 2: 250  
 Vico, Giambattista 4: 26  
 Victor, Paul F. mile 5: 90  
 Victor Emmanuel II, king of Sardinia, Piedmont 4: 26  
 Victor Emmanuel III, king of Italy 4: 27  
 Victoria (Australia) 5: 11, 13-14, 16  
 Victoria (Canada) 2: 15  
 Victoria (Seychelles) 1: 5, 231  
 Victoria (Trinidad and Tobago) 2: 167  
 Victoria, Lake 1: 3, 207, 208, 224, 228, 233, 234, 235, 237, 247  
 Victoria, queen of England 4: 78  
 Victoria Desert 5: 8  
 Victoria Falls 1: 3, 274, 302, 305, 306, 309, 5: 173  
 Victoria Island 5: 85, 88, 89  
 Victoria Land 5: 94  
 Victoria Memorial (Calcutta) 3: 132  
 Victoria Nile River 1: 237, 247  
 Victoria Square 2: 47  
 Victory Peak (Pik Pobedy) 3: 169, 4: 291, 293  
 Vidin 4: 239  
 Viedma 2: 294  
 Vieira, João Bernardo 1: 150, 164  
 Viejo, Mount (Venezuela) 2: 108  
 Viejo, Mount (Tenerife Island) 1: 338  
 Vienna 4: 4, 8, 173, 174, 175, 176, 206  
 Vienna Congress of 4: 10, 13, 26, 30, 62, 83, 176, 186, 190, 204, 206  
 Vietnamese 3: 6, 254, 255, 256, 268  
 Vieques Island 2: 340  
 Viet Cong 3: 266  
 Viet Minh 3: 256, 266  
 Viet Nam people 3: 263  
 Vietnam 3: 6, 9, 245, 253, 261, 266, 267, 268, 268  
 Vietnam War 2: 34, 44  
 Vietnamese people 3: 245, 251, 252, 256, 263  
 vieux Fort 2: 165  
 Vigneault, Gilles 2: 14  
 Vignemal, Ph. de 4: 64  
 Vijaya, Prince 3: 130  
 Vijaya River 4: 233  
 Vikings 2: 11, 4: 8, 17, 20, 25, 69, 72, 76, 121, 125, 133, 140, 5: 88, 89  
 Vila 5: 36, 37  
 Vila Nova de Gaia 4: 86  
 Vila Rica 2: 198  
 Vilcabamba Mountain 2: 257  
 Vilke 4: 250  
 Vilhi people (see BaVilhi people)  
 Vilho 4: 146  
 Vilhigali 3: 120  
 Vilksky, Boris 5: 90  
 Villi, Francisco (Pancho) 2: 106  
 Villa Iara 2: 148  
 Villa Mella 2: 155  
 Villaggio Duca degli Abruzzi 1: 115  
 Villagran Garcia, Jose 2: 107  
 Villanovian people 4: 24  
 Villavieja, Cutillo 2: 150  
 Ville, Marc de Montreal (see Montreal)  
 Villena, R. Martinez 2: 150  
 Villette, Marc 3: 312  
 Vilnius 4: 4, 135, 136, 146  
 Vilna del Mar 2: 244  
 Vindhya Range 3: 107, 113  
 Vinh Phu 3: 263  
 Vinland 2: 11  
 Vinna 4: 309  
 Vinson, Mount 5: 91  
 Vinter Viken 4: 143  
 Virgil 4: 8, 25  
 Virgin Gorda 2: 337  
 Virgin Islands, British 2: 337  
 Virgin Islands, United States of America 2: 340  
 Virginia 2: 31, 35, 36, 38, 48  
 Virunga Mountains 1: 228, 237, 240  
 Virunga National Park 1: 242  
 Visayas 3: 297  
 Vishakhapatnam 3: 114  
 Visigoths 4: 4, 8, 25, 69, 85, 87, 93  
 Vistula 4: 195  
 Vistula River 4: 2, 193  
 Vitebsk 4: 288  
 Viti Levu Island 5: 18  
 Vitke 4: 146  
 Vivaldi, Antonio Lucio 4: 9, 26  
 Vizcaino Desert 2: 115  
 Vlach people 4: 233  
 Vladimir (Russia) 4: 299  
 Vladimir I, grand prince of Kiev 4: 303  
 Vladimirescu, Tudor 4: 252  
 Vladivostok 4: 314

- Vlissingen 4: 189 190  
 Vlore 4: 234 235  
 Vltava River 4: 177  
 Vogel Harry B. 5: 28  
 Vojvodina 4: 245 246 247  
 Volcan de Colima (mountain) 2: 99  
 Volcano Island 3: 313 5: 38  
 Volcanoes National Park 2: 28  
 Volga River 4: 2 297 300 301 313  
 Volgograd 4: 299 300 302  
 Vologda 4: 299  
 Volscian people 4: 24  
 Volta Lake 1: 157  
 Volta people 1: 180 181  
 Volta Redonda 2: 194  
 Volta region (Ghana) 1: 157  
 Volta River 1: 66 79 145 146 147 148 151 156 160 179  
 Voltane 4: 9 304  
 Volturno Valley 4: 20  
 Volvi Lake 4: 15  
 Volvo 4: 146  
 Volyn 4: 309  
 Volyma massif 4: 308  
 Voodooism 2: 161 162 170  
 Vorarlberg 4: 175  
 Voronezh 4: 299  
 Vosges Mountains 4: 64  
 Vostochno-Kazakhstan 4: 292  
 Voznesensky Andrey Andreyevich 4: 300  
 Vrancea 4: 250  
 Vratsa 4: 239  
 Vridi I. 152 153  
 Vu To Tap 3: 261  
 Vulcanica Cordillera 2: 88  
 Vulcano Island 4: 19  
 Vung Tau Con Dao 3: 263  
 Vychodočeský 4: 178  
 Vychodoslovenský 4: 198
- W**  
 W National Park 1: 72 145 147  
 Wad Drai 1: 26 35  
 Wad Medani 1: 76 77  
 Waddington Mount 2: 13  
 Wadi Hadramaut 3: 61  
 Wadi Halfa 1: 75  
 Wadjak man 3: 4  
 Wagner Otto 4: 176  
 Wahhabi movement 3: 19 20 21 22  
 Waiatu River 5: 24  
 Wango Island 3: 300  
 Waikato 5: 25  
 Waikato River 5: 24  
 Waikiki 5: 44  
 Waimakariri River 5: 24  
 Waimangu 5: 74  
 Waiotapu 5: 41  
 Waiakari geysers 5: 24 26  
 Waiakari River 5: 24  
 Wakavama 3: 192  
 Wakefield Edward Gibbon 5: 27  
 Walachia 4: 237 249 250 252  
 Walbrzych 4: 194  
 Wales 4: 71 72 73 73 76  
 Wales Lech 4: 196  
 Wall Street 2: 48  
 Wallace Crabbe Chris 5: 17  
 Wallis Samuel 5: 40  
 Wallis Islands 5: 40  
 Walo 1: 175  
 Walpole Island 5: 39  
 Walvisbaai (Walvis Bay) 1: 294 296  
 Wang Kôn 3: 185  
 Wang Wei 3: 179  
 Wangani 5: 25  
 Wangchuck Jigme Dorji 3: 105  
 Wangpan Yang Bay 3: 174  
 Wankie 1: 306  
 War of (see substantive word)  
 Waidak 3: 14  
 Warner C. D. 2: 43  
 Warner Edward 2: 142  
 Warner Thomas 2: 142 164  
 Warri 1: 171  
 Warsaw (Warszawa) 4: 4 192 193 194 195 206  
 Warsaw Conference of 4: 196  
 Warsaw Pact 4: 179 5: 159  
 Washington, D.C. 2: 4 12 24 27 29 31 33 47  
 Washington George 2: 41 46 164  
 Washington Mount 2: 25  
 Washington (state U.S.) 2: 31 48  
 Wasit 3: 38  
 Wat Pra temple complex 3: 256  
 Watford 4: 80 81  
 Watergate 2: 44  
 Wativi Mount 1: 165  
 Watling Island 2: 144  
 Watt Mount 2: 151  
 Watts F. B. 2: 14  
 Wau 1: 75  
 Wawa River 1: 156  
 Waza National Park 1: 211  
 We Burmese Association 3: 250  
 Webb Francis 5: 17  
 Webi Shebelle River 1: 105 108 114 115 117  
 Weddell Basin 5: 96  
 Weddell Sea 5: 91  
 Weddell Ice Sheet 5: 92  
 Wegener Alfred 2: 1 4: 1 5: 90 136  
 Weimer Joseph S. 3: 4  
 Welc Nzas 1: 221  
 Welland Canal 2: 45 120  
 Wellington (New Zealand) 5: 4 23 24 25 27 43  
 Welsh John 4: 78  
 Wessex 4: 76  
 West Africa Trench 1: 71 74 146 153 162 164 176 335  
 West Africa German 1: 229  
 West Antarctica 5: 91  
 West Bank (Cisjordan) 3: 29 30 42 43  
 West Coast (New Zealand) 5: 25  
 West End (Bahamas) 2: 144  
 West Falkland Isl. 2: 336  
 West Flanders 4: 61  
 West Germany 4: 171 182 183 184 185 (see also Germany)  
 West India Company 4: 190  
 West Indies University of the 2: 157  
 West Indies Associated States 2: 335  
 West Indies Federation 2: 142 167 335  
 West Island (Indian Ocean) 3: 339  
 West Pakistan 3: 104  
 West Virginia 2: 6 31  
 Western Africa 1: 143 183  
 Western Australia 5: 10 11 13 14 16  
 Western Australian Shield 5: 8  
 Western (council The Gambia) 1: 155  
 Western Desert (Sahara) 1: 17 18 19  
 Western Sahara 1: 337  
 Western Samoa 5: 3 4 32 33  
 Westminster Statute of (Great Britain) 2: 23  
 Westminster Abbey 4: 95 96  
 Westmorland 2: 157  
 Westphalia 4: 10  
 Westphalia Peace of 4: 186 190 204  
 Wexak 5: 29  
 Wexford 4: 81  
 Weyden Roger van der 4: 191  
 Weyprecht Karl 5: 87 89  
 Whales Bay of 5: 94  
 Wharfedale (city, Senegal) 1: 175  
 Wheat Belt 2: 35  
 Whig Party (England) 4: 78  
 Whurrnaki 5: 26  
 White, Patrick 5: 17  
 White Bay 5: 43  
 White Carpathian Mountains 4: 177  
 White Cliffs of Dover 4: 95  
 White Highlands (Kenya) 1: 225  
 White House 2: 47  
 White Nile River 1: 17 75 76 80 109 117 214 240  
 White Russia 4: 289 (see also Belarus)  
 White Russians 4: 288 313  
 White Sea 5: 89  
 White Sheep 4: 308  
 White Volta River 1: 156  
 Whitehorn Mount 2: 45  
 Whitehorse 2: 13  
 Whitman Walt 2: 4 42  
 Whitney Mount 2: 25  
 WHO (World Health Organization) 5: 156  
 Wia Wia Nature Reserve 2: 202  
 Wicklow Mountains 4: 79  
 Wiener Secession 4: 176  
 Wight Isle of 4: 57 71  
 Wilhelm I emperor of Germany 4: 186  
 Wilhelm II emperor of Germany 4: 186  
 Wilhelmina queen of Netherlands 4: 192  
 Wilhelmna (mountain range) 2: 202  
 Wilkes Charles 5: 94  
 Wilkins George Hubert 5: 90  
 Willemstad 2: 339  
 William I (the Conqueror) king of England 4: 76 77  
 William I stadtholder of the Netherlands 4: 83 191  
 William II stadtholder of the Netherlands 4: 191 192  
 William III (of Orange) king of England 4: 63 77 81  
 William III king of the Netherlands 4: 192  
 William of Rubruck 3: 205  
 William V stadtholder of the Netherlands 4: 191  
 Williams Eric 2: 167  
 Williamson David 5: 17  
 Willoughby Francis William 2: 204  
 Wilpattu National Park 3: 128  
 Wilson James 5: 19 40  
 Wilson Mount 2: 25  
 Wilson Woodrow 4: 10  
 Windhoek 1: 5 293 294 310  
 Windmill Hill 4: 76  
 Windsor 2: 120  
 Windward Islands 2: 145 151 159 165 338 5: 39 40  
 Windward Passage 2: 161  
 Winnipeg 2: 13 15 17  
 Winnipeg Lake 2: 13  
 Winter Palace 4: 314  
 Wisconsin 2: 31 35 37  
 Witwatersrand 1: 297 298 299  
 Wladyslaw II king of Poland 4: 196  
 Wloclawek 4: 194  
 Wloclaw Karol 4: 206  
 Wolcu Ntem 1: 220  
 Wollega 1: 110  
 Wollo 1: 109 110  
 Wolof people 1: 70 154 174 175  
 Women's Alliance (Iceland) 4: 333  
 Wonga Wongue National Park 1: 219  
 Wonsan 3: 183 184 185  
 Wood Buffalo National Park 2: 15  
 Woolf Virginia 4: 78  
 Wordsworth, William 4: 78  
 World Bank 5: 156  
 World Health Organization (WHO) 5: 156  
 World Trade Center 2: 33 47  
 World War I 2: 23 34 43 194 198 246 4: 10 27 176 235 236 241 244 247 252 304  
 World War II 2: 23 34 107 198 4: 10 27 65 176 196 252 287 304  
 Worms Treaty of 4: 25  
 Wrangel Ferdinand Petrovich 5: 89  
 Wrangel Island 5: 86 87 88  
 Wrangell Mountains 2: 26  
 Wright, Judith 5: 17  
 Wroclaw 4: 194 195  
 Wu kingdom 3: 208  
 Wu Lao Hsuan (Wu Daozi) 3: 179  
 Wudi emperor of Han dynasty 3: 349  
 Wuhan 3: 172  
 Wullis Island 2: 336  
 Wuppertal 4: 206  
 Wyoming 2: 29 31 37
- X**  
 Xaignabouri 3: 255  
 Xamat (see Mogadishu)  
 Xekong 3: 255  
 Xenophon 3: 443  
 Xhosa people 1: 297  
 Xi Jiang (river) 3: 170 171 339  
 Xianbei 3: 176  
 Xi'an 3: 172 179 319 351  
 Xiangkhong 3: 255  
 Xienbei kingdom 3: 204  
 Xingu River 2: 211  
 Xinjiang 3: 7 168 172 210  
 Xiongnu people 3: 178 204 349  
 Xizang (see Tibet)
- Y**  
 Yacireta 2: 303  
 Yacoubia people 1: 152  
 Yade Mountains 1: 211  
 Yafan 1: 24  
 Yahya Khan 3: 127  
 Yakutiva (Yakuti) 4: 299 302  
 Yakutsk 4: 300  
 Yala National Park 3: 178  
 Yale University 2: 38  
 Yalta 4: 309 310  
 Yalta Conference 4: 289 310  
 Yalu River 3: 183 184 185  
 Yamnita 3: 192  
 Yamaguchi 3: 192  
 Yamal Peninsula 4: 302  
 Yamalo-Nenets District 4: 299  
 Yamanashi 3: 192  
 Yamato kingdom 3: 198  
 Yambol 4: 239  
 Yamoussoukro 1: 5 152  
 Yana River Basin 5: 89  
 Yan'an 3: 171 210  
 Yanbu 3: 19 21  
 Yanggang do 3: 184  
 Yangon 3: 6 246 247 248 249 267  
 Yangtze River (see Chang Jiang)  
 Yangyang 3: 189  
 Yankari 1: 169  
 Yankes 2: 9  
 Yanonimo people 2: 211  
 Yantar 3: 175  
 Yao people 1: 287 288 3: 255 258  
 Yaounde 1: 5 210 211 212  
 Yaounde people 1: 213  
 Yap Island 5: 21 22  
 Yap Ridge 5: 21  
 Yap Trench 5: 22  
 Yaque del Norte River 2: 153  
 Yaqun River 2: 100  
 Yaracuy 2: 207  
 Yaren 5: 4 22 23  
 Yaruk River 3: 29  
 Yaroslavl 4: 299  
 Yatenga 1: 68 147  
 Yatenga Empire 1: 148  
 Yathrib 3: 19 20 21  
 Yavoi people 3: 197 198  
 Yazd 3: 33  
 Yazdi Farrokhi 3: 36  
 Ybal 3: 49  
 Yeats William Butler 4: 82  
 Yekaterinburg 4: 299 300  
 Yekaterinburg 4: 299  
 Yekpa 1: 166  
 Yellow River (see Huang He)  
 Yellow Sea 3: 167 183 187  
 Yellowknife 2: 13  
 Yellowstone Lake 2: 29  
 Yellowstone National Park 2: 3 25 28 29 40 5: 135  
 Yellowstone River 2: 29  
 Yeltsin Boris 4: 305  
 Yemen 3: 6 21 60-62 338  
 Yemen possessions in Africa 1: 5 338  
 Yemen Arab Republic 1: 338  
 Yemenite people 1: 113 3: 20  
 Yenisei River 4: 297 5: 85 87 89  
 Yenisei Selenga River 3: 3  
 Yerevan 4: 4 285 313  
 Yermak expedition 4: 303  
 Yerushalayim (see Jerusalem)  
 Yevyeyskaya District 4: 299  
 Yevushenko Yevgeny 4: 300  
 Yid dynasty 3: 186 188  
 Yi Kwangsu 3: 186  
 Yikon 2: 26  
 Yinglingar dynasty 4: 140  
 Yobe 1: 169  
 Yoli 1: 174  
 Yogyakarta 3: 302  
 Yoho National Park 2: 15  
 Yojai Lake 2: 96  
 Yokohama 3: 192 196 197 211  
 Yoritoshir Minamoto 3: 198  
 York (see Toronto)  
 Yoro 2: 97  
 Youbia kingdom 1: 146 172  
 Youbia people 1: 145 146 169 171 172  
 Yosemite National Park 2: 26 28  
 Yosi 3: 189  
 Youtou Embankment 1: 217  
 Yonoplostoma movement 4: 127  
 Young Inland group 4: 130  
 Young Turks 4: 235  
 Yousouf 1: 29  
 Ypsilantis Alexander 4: 252  
 Yrigoyen Hipolito 2: 295  
 Yu Shan (mountain) 3: 206  
 Yuan dynasty 3: 180 208  
 Yucatan 2: 82 55 99 100 102 105 115 116  
 Yucatan Peninsula 2: 103  
 Yucuyacu (mountain) 2: 116  
 Yugoslavia 4: 4 6 10 12 232 244 247 249 257 258  
 Yugoslav Kingdom of 4: 248  
 Yugoslav Socialist Federal Republic of 4: 200 236 244 246 247 248  
 Yukon 2: 15 19  
 Yukon River 2: 13 26  
 Yundun 1: 155  
 Yung Lo 3: 173 174  
 Yunlin 3: 207  
 Yunnan 3: 172 351
- Z**  
 Zabala Maunillo de 2: 310  
 Zabal 3: 14  
 Zacapa 2: 94  
 Zaccarias 2: 102  
 Zadar 4: 243  
 Zagazig 1: 18  
 Zaghwan 1: 33  
 Zagorsk 4: 314  
 Zagreb 4: 4 242 243 258  
 Zagros Mountains 3: 31 32 37  
 Zagwe (Zagwe) dynasty 1: 111 118  
 Zahle 3: 47  
 Zaidite dynasty 3: 61 62  
 Zaidieh River 3: 31 34  
 Zaïre (country) 1: 5 207 240-246 248 (see also Congo)  
 Zaïre (province Angola) 1: 276

- Zaire River (*see* Congo River)  
 Zakaipatiya 4: 309  
 Zakynthos 4: 14  
 Zakopane 4: 193  
 Zakouma National Park 1: 62  
 Zala 4: 254  
 Zambezi (Zambesi) River 1: 3  
 240, 274, 287, 290, 291  
 302, 303, 304, 305, 306  
 307, 309, 310  
 Zambesia 1: 291  
 Zambia 1: 5, 207, 274  
 302, 304, 309, 310  
 Zamboanga 3: 296, 297, 298  
 Zambos 2: 93, 115, 249  
 Zamora Chinchipe 2: 254  
 Zamora (Santiago) River  
 2: 253  
 Zamosc 4: 194  
 Zanagá people 1: 27, 71  
 Zancle 4: 24  
 Zanderij 2: 204  
 Zangwill, Israel 2: 7, 10  
 Zanzan 3: 33  
 ZANU' (Zimbabwe African  
 National Union) 1: 308  
 Zanzibar 1: 226, 233, 234, 235  
 236, 3: 50  
 Zapadoslovensky 4: 198  
 Zapata, Emiliano 2: 106  
 Zapata Peninsula 2: 147, 148  
 Zapodocsky 4: 178  
 Zapotolive 4: 309  
 Zapotizhze River 4: 310  
 Zapotitlan marshes 2: 90  
 Zaua 1: 170  
 Zárnesz 4: 251  
 Zauqa 3: 30  
 Zauqa River 3: 29  
 Zavatti, Silvio 5: 94, 95  
 Zawiyah, Az 1: 23  
 Zaza River 2: 147  
 Zealand (Sjælland) 4: 123, 124  
 146  
 Zechrugge 4: 62  
 Zealand 4: 190  
 Zeila 1: 116  
 Zemiensys Lakes National Park  
 4: 136  
 Zelaya 2: 109  
 Zen Buddhism 3: 199, 212  
 Zenata people 1: 27, 71  
 Zenea, Juan Clemente 2: 150  
 Zenhaga people 1: 80  
 Zeno, Antonio 5: 89  
 Zeno, Nicolo 5: 89  
 Zeravshan River 4: 306  
 Zhang Qian 3: 349  
 Zhejiang 3: 172, 175  
 Zhitomir 4: 309  
 Zhivkov, Todor 4: 241  
 Zhonghua Renmin Gongheguo  
 (*see* China)  
 Zhon civilization 3: 177  
 Zhoukoudian 3: 176  
 Zhu Jiang (river) 3: 349  
 Zhu Yuanzhang 3: 180  
 Ziti Begum Khakda 3: 101  
 Zibo 3: 172  
 Zichri, Mustata ben 1: 25  
 Ziehr, Wilhelm 3: 178, 179  
 Zielona Góra 4: 194  
 Ziguinchor 1: 173, 174, 175  
 Zillertal Alps 4: 173  
 Zilna 4: 197  
 Zimbabwe 1: 5, 274, 304  
 305, 308, 309, 310  
 Zimbabwe African National  
 Union (ZANU) 1: 308  
 Zinave National Park 1: 291  
 Zinder 1: 73, 74  
 Zionist movement 3: 12, 42  
 44  
 Zipangu 3: 194, 351  
 Ziskar Range 3: 106  
 Ziyaydid people 3: 21  
 Zlatan 1: 23, 24  
 Zocalo 2: 116  
 Zogu, Ahmed (Zog I, king of  
 Albania) 4: 235  
 Zolberg, Aristotle R. 5: 156  
 Zomba 1: 286, 287  
 Zoroastrianism 3: 8, 36, 100  
 Zou 1: 145  
 Zou River 1: 145  
 Zouerate 1: 70, 71, 80  
 Zoundwogo 1: 117  
 Zrenjain 4: 245  
 Zucénoula 1: 152, 153  
 Zug 4: 202  
 Zug Lake of (Zug-See)  
 4: 201  
 Zugs Spitze 4: 180  
 Zundersee 4: 189  
 Zulia River 2: 205, 207  
 Zulia (state, Venezuela) 2: 84  
 207, 208  
 Zulus people 1: 273, 282, 287  
 297, 301  
 Zurbano, Francisco de 4: 94  
 Zurich 4: 202, 203, 204  
 Zvolen 4: 197  
 Zwerg, Stefan 2: 242  
 Zwickau-Olsnitz 4: 184  
 Zwinger, Huldreich 4: 204